

Revised as of January 2009

1/6/03 Physics 4523

today: what is this course?

What is temperature?

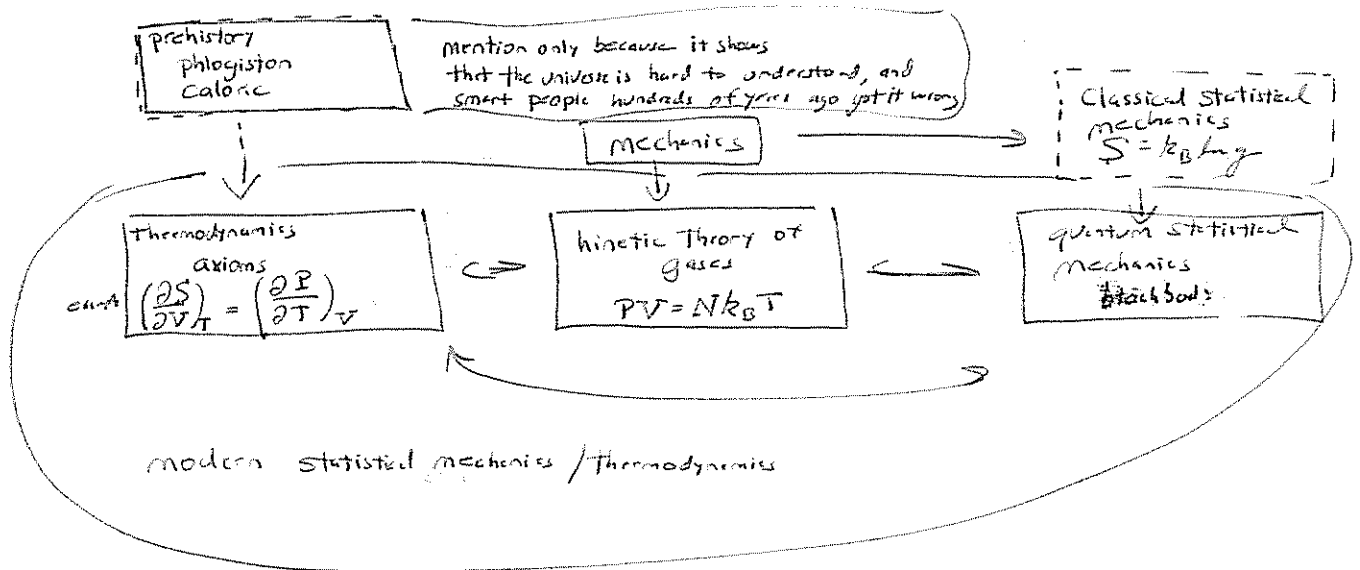
Start counting microstates.

W, F: counting microstates

This course

The problem: how to extract information from far too many degrees of freedom.

Historical currents (course not historical - much too hard!)



why: ~~A~~ "classical" statistical mechanics?

READ GOODSTEIN

Administrative : Hand out syllabus + HW

policies (in syllabus): HW,
cheating
PREREQ.
books - library

Roll call

Replace too many degrees of freedom with a small number of measurable (or interable) state variables. For example, for a gas in a box, these might be

pressure	P	} not all independent
volume	V	
temperature	T	
internal energy	U	
# molecules	N	
entropy	S	

organize

explain

<u>extensive</u>	<u>intensive</u>
N	T
V	P
S	color?
mass	
energy	<u>neither</u>
momentum	$\sqrt{\text{mass}}$
	speed
	time

Equilibrium & connection between intensive quantity and something conserved that they can exchange:



<u>intensive quantity same in 1 & 2</u>	if	<u>two systems can exchange</u>	<u>how (example)</u>
pressure		volume	piston
chemical potential		particles	hole in container; electrical
temperature		energy	thin rigid wall (thinly conductive)

Steady state: ^{on ave.} no change in any state variables.
 Equilibrium: Steady state AND ^{on ave.} no net flow of exchangeable quantities with ANY other systems (linked with rest, just collectively)

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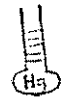
What is temperature? A: (p)review (mostly a review of Physics I, but we'll do all of this more carefully later).

1. "That scalar ^{intensive} quantity shared by two objects in equilibrium if they can exchange energy." - not unique, doesn't even tell about ordering

so - 2nd law (special application): heat flows hotter \rightarrow colder until equilibrium reached

Still doesn't tell us how to measure it
Combined w/ 1st law, eventually get to heat engine (below)

2. practical expansion-type thermometer



Gabriel Daniel Fahrenheit 18th c. prev. used alcohol - too big & inaccurate
0°F = freezing of salt water (coldest liquid he could get)
100°F = body temp.

so Fahrenheit was intended to be a centigrade scale

3. From kinetic theory of gases, we find for ideal gas (explain) that

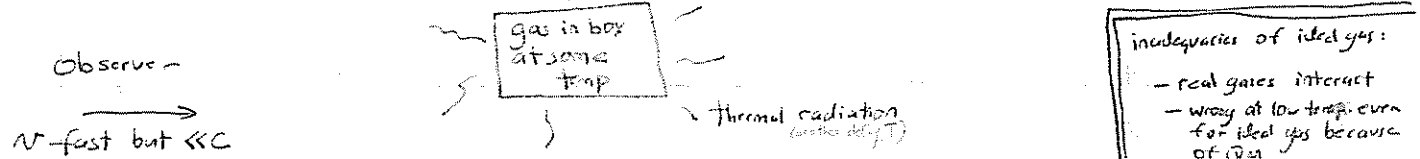
$$PV = N \cdot \frac{2}{3} \langle \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \rangle_{\text{ave.}} \quad \text{regardless of gas}$$

Define temperature $k_B T = \frac{2}{3} \langle \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \rangle$; then $PV = N k_B T \rightarrow$ gas thermometer
NOTE: $T \geq 0$
arbitrary constant to convert energy units into temperature units

K&K set $k_B \equiv 1$ to define $\tau = \frac{2}{3} \langle \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \rangle = k_B T$
i.e., measure temperature in ergs
I'll usually keep the k_B in class.

$$k_B \approx 1.38 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ erg/K}$$

Subtlety: temperature is not exactly the same thing as kinetic energy. For example,



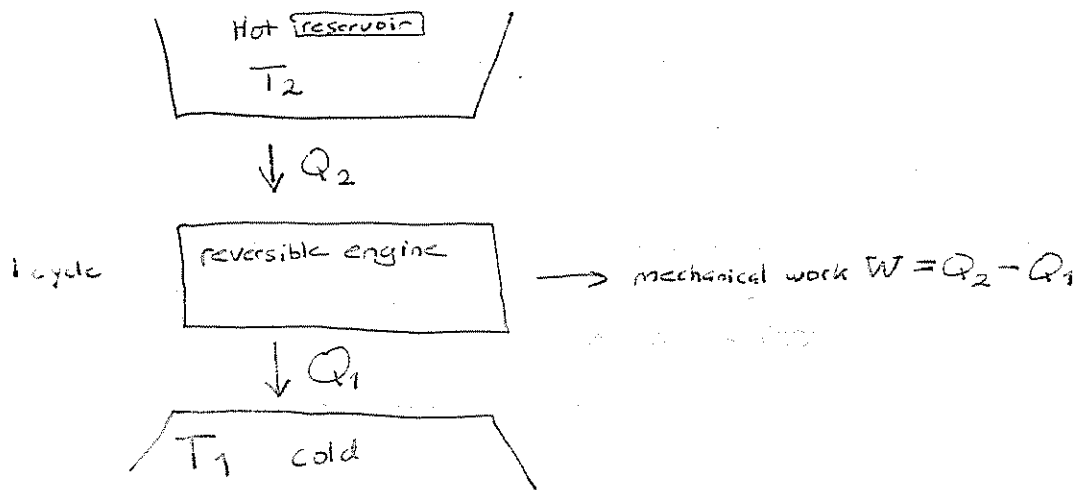
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We do NOT add v to the rms velo. of the gas molecules in the box:

$T' \approx T$. So the relevant K.E. is the "random part," not the center-of-mass motion.

(In fact, the temp. is Lorentz contracted, but we've kept $v \ll c$.)

4. Heat Engine

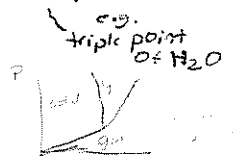


You found in Physics 1 that

$$\frac{Q_2}{Q_1} = \frac{T_2}{T_1}$$

taking this as a definition gives a way of measuring temperature

(Carry around a reference reservoir at T_1 ; measure Q_1 & Q_2 to get T_2)



11/6/03

5. Start. Mech. : to develop in detail this week and next

macrostate : $P, V, T, \overset{\text{internal energy}}{U}, \dots$ not all independent
Small #

~~Assume~~ Assume U determines all the rest
(e.g., ~~isolated~~ ideal gas in rigid box)

microstate : $\vec{x}_1, \vec{p}_1, \vec{x}_2, \vec{p}_2, \dots, \vec{x}_{10^{23}}, \vec{p}_{10^{23}}$ large #

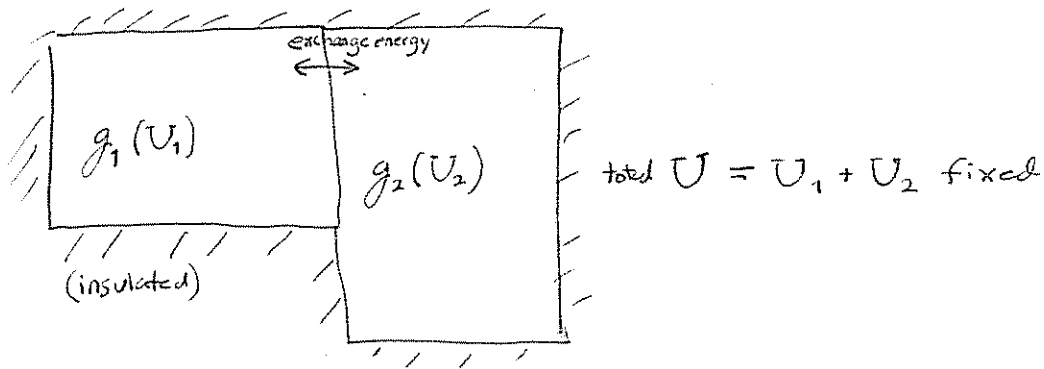
Many microstates per macrostate - let $g(U)$ be "number" of ways to pick $\{\vec{x}_i, \vec{p}_i\}$ consistent with U .

* Boltzmann's suicide

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ergodic hypothesis : All microstates consistent w/ a given macrostate are equally likely ; system goes through "all" of them on a time scale short compared to the expt. ("all" = arbitrarily close, or close enough, in phase space).

Two systems in thermal equilibrium — can exchange energy but not volume or particles. T will be "that thing" which is the same @ equilibrium



["microcanonical ensemble" to explain later]

$$\text{total \# configs } g(U_1, U_2) = g_1(U_1)g_2(U_2) = g_1(U_1)g_2(U-U_1) \\ = g(U_1)$$

Ansatz: if all microstates are equally likely, then the equilibrium macrostate is the one corresponding to the largest number of microstates.

explain
not'n

$$\text{set } 0 = \left(\frac{\partial g(U_1)}{\partial U_1} \right)_N = g_1'(U_1)g_2(U-U_1) - g_1(U_1)g_2'(U-U_1)$$

$$\text{i.e., } \frac{g_1'}{g_1} = \frac{g_2'}{g_2} \quad \text{looks like log deriv.}$$

} property of ~~both~~ #1 alone
 } property of #2 alone

~ some fun.

$$\text{so } T = f(g'/g) = f\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_N$$

where $S \equiv k_B \ln g$

will improve later

Intuitively, hot \Rightarrow g big
cold \Rightarrow g small,

Argue that $g'/g \sim \infty$ when $U=0$

so we define $f(x) = 1/x$; i.e.,

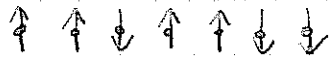
$$T \equiv \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S} \right)_N$$

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Start on counting microstates

We'll follow K&K considering a very simple system, the binary-spin model.

("Ising" usually reserved for interacting spins - Ours will interact only with a magnetic field, not with each other.)



Each classical spin (moment) ↑ +1 or ↓ -1

will be useful later when we turn on mag. fld.

- 1) very simple - exactly solvable
- 2) other similar systems aren't so easy (HW)
- 3) generic features of $g(U)$ are good for large # of spins

energy $U = -\mu m B$

	config	discrete moment m	$g(m)$	probability <u>IF $B=0$</u>
one spin	↑	+1	1	50%
two states	↓	-1	$\frac{1}{2} = 2^1$	50%
two spins	↑ ₁ ↑ ₂	+2	1	25%
four states	↑ ₁ ↓ ₂	0	2	50%
	↓ ₁ ↑ ₂	0		
	↓ ₁ ↓ ₂	-2		
three spins	↑ ₁ ↑ ₂ ↑ ₃	3	$g(3) = 1$	12.5%
eight states	↑ ₁ ↑ ₂ ↓ ₃	1	$g(1) = 3$	37.5%
	↑ ₁ ↓ ₂ ↑ ₃			
	↓ ₁ ↑ ₂ ↑ ₃			
	↓ ₁ ↓ ₂ ↑ ₃	-1	$g(-1) = 3$	37.5%
	↓ ₁ ↑ ₂ ↓ ₃			
	↑ ₁ ↓ ₂ ↓ ₃	-3	$g(-3) = 1$	12.5%
	↓ ₁ ↓ ₂ ↓ ₃			

Assuming no mag. fld, all 8 STATES are equally likely. However, it is 3x more likely that $m_{tot} = +1$ than $m_{tot} = +3$.

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1/8/03

Monday: intro; 4 definitions of T

Today: 5th def. of T

counting μ states

Fri.: sharpness of distribution

(pp 4-6 left over)

* Say something about turning on mag. fld. At $T=0$, all in ground state $\uparrow\uparrow$. However, well see that for $B \neq 0$, $T > 0$, there's some probability for each state.

For general N :

Let N_{\uparrow} = # up spins, N_{\downarrow} = # down spins = $N - N_{\uparrow}$

How many ways are there to have N_{\uparrow} up & N_{\downarrow} down?

answer: $g(N; N_{\uparrow}) = \frac{N!}{N_{\uparrow}! N_{\downarrow}!} = \frac{N!}{N_{\uparrow}! (N - N_{\uparrow})!} \equiv \binom{N}{N_{\uparrow}} \text{ read "N choose } N_{\uparrow}$
 $= \binom{N}{N_{\downarrow}}$

argument: N choices of where to put 1st up spin

$N-1$ " " " " 2nd " " , because one slot's taken

$N-2$ " " " " 3rd " "

⋮

$N - N_{\uparrow} + 1$ " " " last " "

SO FAR we have $g \propto N(N-1)(N-2) \dots (N - N_{\uparrow} + 1)$

$$= \frac{N(N-1)(N-2) \dots (N - N_{\uparrow} + 1)(N - N_{\uparrow})(N - N_{\uparrow} - 1) \dots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{(N - N_{\uparrow})(N - N_{\uparrow} - 1) \dots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}$$

$$= \frac{N!}{(N - N_{\uparrow})!} \text{ However, we've overcounted, because}$$

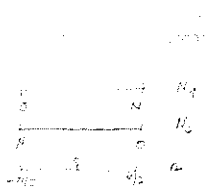
I don't care which was the first up spin, which the second, etc. It overcounts by a factor of $N_{\uparrow}!$ → answer above

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Sometimes it's convenient to define

$$\Delta = \frac{N_{\uparrow} - N_{\downarrow}}{2}$$

Δ is called "spin excess" - for example, if I have 40 spins, and 22 are up, $\Delta = \frac{22-18}{2} = \frac{4}{2} = 2 = N_{\uparrow} - \frac{N}{2}$



$$N_{\uparrow} = N/2 + \Delta$$

$$N_{\downarrow} = N/2 - \Delta$$

$$\text{so } g(N, \Delta) = g(N; \frac{N}{2} + \Delta) = \frac{N!}{(\frac{N}{2} + \Delta)! (\frac{N}{2} - \Delta)!}$$

$g(N; N_{\uparrow})$ called "binomial coef." because is formal product

$$(\uparrow + \downarrow)^N = (\uparrow + \downarrow)(\uparrow + \downarrow) \dots (\uparrow + \downarrow) = \uparrow\uparrow\uparrow \dots \uparrow\uparrow + \uparrow\uparrow\uparrow \dots \uparrow\downarrow + \dots$$

if we collect terms by total numbers of up & down, we have

$$(\uparrow + \downarrow)^N = \sum_{N_{\uparrow}=0}^N \binom{N}{N_{\uparrow}} \uparrow^{N_{\uparrow}} \downarrow^{(N-N_{\uparrow})}$$

Pascal's triangle to calculate binomial coef.:

N=0					1				
	1				1	1			
	2				1	2	1		
	3				1	3	3	1	
	4				1	4	6	4	1
							⋮		

1/8/03

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Sharpness of coin flips. (I don't mean what is chance it will land on edge)

Assume coin unbiased.

Most likely outcome is 50% heads, 50% tails, but I might not get exactly 50-50.

Example: 4 coins	0 heads	$1/16 = 6.25\%$
	1 head	$4/16 = 25\%$
	2	$6/16 = 37.5\%$
	3	25%
	4	6.25%

only a 37.5% chance of exactly 50%-50%, but an 87.5% chance it's between 25%-75% & 75-25.

How about 1000 coins?

According to my calc.:

exactly 50%-50% (i.e., 500 heads, 500 tails) : only 2.5% chance
but chance it's between 25%-75% (250 heads, 750 tails)
and 75%-25% (750 heads, 250 tails)

is about $1 - 4 \cdot 10^{-59}$, i.e.,

$$\begin{array}{c} 99.9999 \dots 9996 \\ \longleftarrow \hspace{1.5cm} \longrightarrow \\ 58 \end{array}$$

Show histograms unscated & scated - comment on sharpness

Next: continuum approximation

10

1/10/03 Wed.: Counting μ states; binomial expansion

today: binomial \rightarrow continuum approximation \rightarrow Gaussian averages

Monday: Canonical ensemble

SET OFFICE HOURS

let's over page (9)

20/10/03

$$g(N, a) = \frac{N!}{\left(\frac{N}{2} + a\right)! \left(\frac{N}{2} - a\right)!}$$

- graphs \rightarrow need for continuum approx

First step in algebra - tame big numbers by taking log:

$$\ln [g(N, a)] = \ln(N!) - \ln\left[\left(\frac{N}{2} + a\right)!\right] - \ln\left[\left(\frac{N}{2} - a\right)!\right]$$

Two approximations:

- 1) Stirling series $\ln(n!) \sim n \ln n - n + \frac{1}{2} \ln n + \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) + \frac{1}{12n} + \dots$
- 2) $a/N \ll 1$: ~~not~~ justified by what we've seen so far: away from center ($a=0$),

$$\frac{g(N, a)}{2^N} \ll 1.$$

empirical test of Stirling:

n	$\ln(n!)$	$n \ln n - n$	$n \ln n - n + \frac{1}{2} \ln n + \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi)$
3	1.7918	0.2958	1.7641
10	15.104	13.026	15.096
50	148.48	145.60	148.48
100	363.74	360.52	363.74

Contrast Taylor & asymptotic series:

	Taylor ($\ln x$)	Asymptotic ($\ln \frac{1}{x}$)
for fixed # terms better as x or $\frac{1}{x} \rightarrow 0$	✓	✓
for fixed x or $\frac{1}{x}$, better with more terms	✓	✗

derivation of Stirling

1. K&K app. A - tedious but elementary
2. Bender & Orszag Adv. Math. Methods for Sci. & Eng. 3 methods

(1)

$$\ln[g(N, a)] = N \ln N - N + \frac{1}{2} \ln N - \left(\frac{N}{2} + a + \frac{1}{2}\right) \ln\left[\frac{N}{2} + a\right] + \frac{N}{2} + a - \left(\frac{N}{2} - a + \frac{1}{2}\right) \ln\left[\frac{N}{2} - a\right] + \frac{N}{2} - a - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi)$$

write $\ln\left(\frac{N}{2} \pm a\right) = \ln\left(\frac{N}{2} [1 \pm \epsilon]\right)$ where $\epsilon \equiv \frac{2a}{N}$ assumed $\ll 1$
 $= \ln N - \ln 2 + \ln(1 \pm \epsilon)$

TAYLOR $\approx \ln N - \ln 2 \pm \epsilon - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \pm \frac{1}{3} \epsilon^3 - \dots$ keep ϵ^3 term just to estimate our error at the end

$$\ln[g(N, a)] \approx (N + \frac{1}{2}) \ln N - \left(\frac{N+1}{2} + a\right) (\ln N - \ln 2 + \epsilon - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 + \frac{1}{3} \epsilon^3) - \left(\frac{N+1}{2} - a\right) (\ln N - \ln 2 - \epsilon - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 - \frac{1}{3} \epsilon^3) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi)$$

$$= (N + \frac{1}{2}) \ln N - (N+1) \ln N + (N+1) \ln 2 + \frac{1}{2} (N+1) \epsilon^2 - 2\epsilon a - \frac{2}{3} a \epsilon^3 - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi)$$

$$= N \ln 2 + \frac{1}{2} \ln(2/(\pi N)) - 2a^2/N + 2(a/N)^2 - \mathcal{O}(a^4/N^3)$$

For $a=0$, $\ln[g(N, 0)] \approx N \ln 2 + \frac{1}{2} \ln\left(\frac{2}{\pi N}\right) + \mathcal{O}(1/N)$ from Stirling

take exponential: $g(N, 0) \approx 2^N \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi N}}$ ($\times e^{-1/N}$) \approx

Generally,
 $g(N, a) \approx g(N, 0) \exp\left[-2 \frac{a^2}{N} + 2 \left(\frac{a}{N}\right)^2 - \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{a}{N}\right)^3\right]$
vs small really truly small

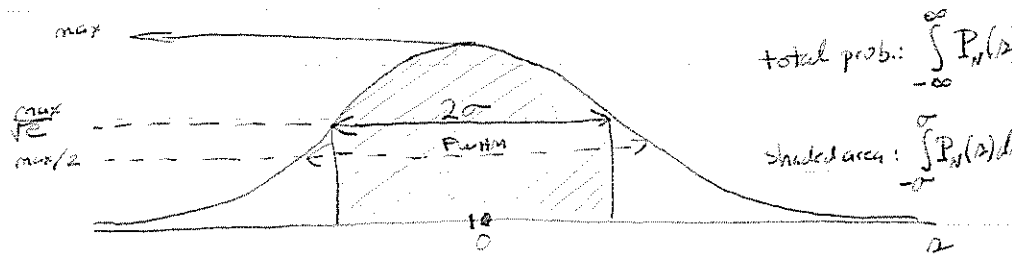
What's left is a Gaussian (normal, bell-shaped curve).

Recall we assume no mag. field.

$$P_N(a) = \frac{g(N, a)}{2^N} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi N}} e^{-2a^2/N}$$

Put in form of a normal distribution: $P_N(a) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-a^2/(2\sigma^2)}$

σ called standard deviation; here $\sigma = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{N}$



total prob: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_N(a) da = 1$ note endpoints: originally $\pm N/2$ hardly diff $\pm \infty$

shaded area: $\int_{-\sigma}^{\sigma} P_N(a) da = \text{erf}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \approx 0.6827$

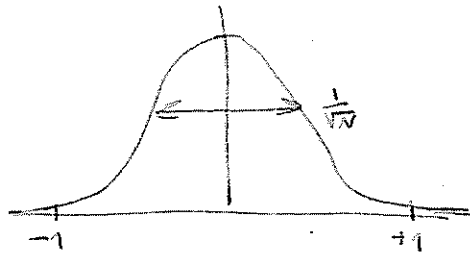
So a PROBABLY lies between $a = \pm \sigma$ i.e. $\pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{N}$

(12)

Natural variable is not A but rather $x = A/N = \frac{1}{2} \frac{N_A - N_B}{N}$

(i.e., magnetization PER SPIN rather than total)

standard deviation $\sigma' = \frac{\sigma}{N} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{N}}$



so 68% prob $\frac{x}{N}$ lies between $\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$
95% " " " " $\pm \frac{1.96}{\sqrt{N}}$
99.7% " " " " $\pm \frac{3}{\sqrt{N}}$

7/10/03 AM

Averages.

If heads are worth +1 & tails -1, what is avg. coin toss?

$$\langle x \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \in \pm 1} x = 0$$

Now say coin is weighted so that prob(+1) = 55%, prob(-1) = 45%.

$$\langle x \rangle = \sum_{x \in \pm 1} x P(x) = -1 \cdot 0.45 + 1 \cdot 0.55 = 0.1$$

For a continuous prob. distrib., $P(x) dx$ means "prob. of events between x & $x+dx$."

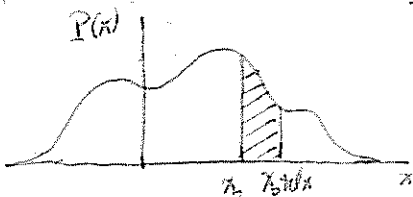
$$\langle x \rangle = \int x P(x) dx$$

For our binary-spin problem, $P(A) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-A^2/(2\sigma^2)}$, $\sigma = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{N}}$

avg. spin excess, $\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dA A e^{-A^2/(2\sigma^2)}$ integral odd $\rightarrow 0$

avg. square (spin excess) $\langle A^2 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dA A^2 P(A) = \sigma^2$ (see book)

General expectation values



$P(x)$ is prob. density of x .

shaded = prob. that $x_0 \leq x \leq x_0 + dx$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x) dx = 1$$

$$\langle f(x) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) P(x) dx$$

(13)

1/13/03

last week: (p) review ; counting μ states

today: averages
microcanonical ensemble

Wed.: the laws of thermodynamics

1. A few minutes on problems 2 & 3 from HW 1.

It's sometimes easier to solve for the probability of something not happening.

Example: flipping four coins, what is the prob. of getting at least 1 head?

a) $P(1 \text{ head}) + P(2) + P(3) + P(4) = \frac{4+6+4+1}{16} = \frac{15}{16}$

b) $1 - P(0 \text{ heads}) = 1 - \frac{1}{16} = \frac{15}{16}$

2. Finish p12 on averages

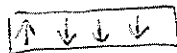
Microcanonical ensemble:

K&K: for each accessible state of system, one copy of the system.

E.g., binary spin system, $N=4$, $\frac{1}{2}$ spin excess $M=1$:



represented by 4 copies, one for each accessible state:



Now turn on B
so energy diff.
for eq. macrostate

"Accessible" in microcanonical ensemble means having same energy - implies
furthermore some dynamical way of getting there in experimental time.

Examples of inaccessible: 1) glass - even though ~~quite~~ fused silica could turn
into quartz + heat & conserve energy, it can't get there from here even
over millions (?) of years (nor diamond \rightarrow graphite).

2) planetary system consisting of one star & one planet - many orbits have the
same energy, but even over billions of years, there's no dynamical mechanism
for going from one to another, so

Starr. mech. not useful. (In this case,



there are other conserved quantities: angular momentum & the Laplace-Runge-Lenz vector)

Add a 3rd body, and motion could become either ergodic or chaotic.

3) QM exact stationary state — $\psi(x,t) = e^{-iEt/\hbar} \psi(x,0)$ stay the same forever (other than phase).
 However, if ψ is a stationary state only of an approximate Hamiltonian, H_0 , with $H = H_0 + H'$, the perturbation H' may "ergodically" couple all stationary states of H_0 with the same energy (quantum chaos — current research).

Ensemble average: $\langle f \rangle = \frac{1}{\#systems} \sum_{\substack{A=1 \\ (state)}}^{\#systems} f(x_A) = \frac{1}{g} \sum_{A=1}^g f(x_A)$

Other ways to view mechanical ensemble:

— ∞ many copies of the system, each started off in a different initial config. of the same energy (and other macroscopic vars):

$\langle f \rangle = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\substack{t=1 \\ (system\ label)}}^N f(x(t))$ (each with eq. weights)

— one system sampled at different times:

$\langle f \rangle = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(x(t)) dt$

According to the ergodic hypothesis, all of these give the same average.

Comment on notation: $\langle \cdot \rangle$ is ensemble average

In this chapter, ave. over μ canonical ensemble (V, N, μ fixed).
 In Ch. 3, ave. over canonical ensemble (T, N fixed).
 Later, over grand canonical ensemble (T, μ fixed).
 } will give equivalent results in equilibrium

Sometimes, we might need a quantum expectation value; if it's necessary to distinguish, we can write $\langle \cdot \rangle_{thermal}$ & $\langle \cdot \rangle_{QM}$.

Recall last week's derivation of Temp. —

~~Before~~, I wrote $g(U_1) = g_1(U_1) g_2(U - U_1)$ for the most probable partition of energy between the two subsystems. At thermal equilibrium, this and a vanishingly small criterion are the only ~~possible~~ partitions that matter. To be completely correct, $g = \sum_{U_1} g(U_1) = \sum_{U_1} g_1(U_1) g_2(U - U_1)$.

5/10/02
 11/10/02
 11/12/02

We found $\left(\frac{\partial S_1}{\partial U_1}\right)_N = \left(\frac{\partial S_2}{\partial U_2}\right)_N$ where $S_i = k_B \ln g_i$.

With give example of spin systems in thermal contact.

N_1, N_2 fixed; ^{(1/2) Spin excess} \dots $2\alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2$ fixed, α_1 allowed to vary

(\mathcal{H} ' has term flipping $\uparrow_{sys1} \downarrow_{sys2} \leftrightarrow \downarrow_{sys1} \uparrow_{sys2}$ - total spin conserved)

For $i = 1, 2$, $g_i(\alpha_i) = g_i(0) e^{-2\alpha_i^2/N_i}$, $g_i(0) = 2^{N_i} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi N_i}}$

Most likely config. satisfies

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_1} [g_1(\alpha_1) g_2(2-\alpha_1)] = 0$$

Extremum occurs in ~~same~~^{same} place for g_1, g_2 as for $\ln(g_1, g_2)$, so

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_1} [\ln g_1(\alpha_1) + \ln g_2(2-\alpha_1)] = \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_1} [\ln g_1(0) - 2\alpha_1^2/N_1 + \ln g_2(0) - 2(2-\alpha_1)^2/N_2] \\ &= -4\alpha_1/N_1 + 4 \frac{[2-\alpha_1]}{N_2} \end{aligned}$$

so $\boxed{\frac{\alpha_1}{N_1} = \frac{2-\alpha_1}{N_2}}$ i.e., magnetization per spin equal in the two subsystems

Converting to energy (with magnetic field),

$$U = - \sum_{\text{spin } j} \mu m_j B$$

where $m_j = \pm 1$; $\sum_j m_j = N_1 - N_2 = 2\alpha$, so
 $N_1 = \sum_j m_j$

$$-U = -\mu \alpha B$$

Thus $\boxed{\frac{U_1}{N_1} = \frac{U_2}{N_2}}$

equal energy densities - this needn't be the case in general, however: systems 1 & 2 might not have the same magnetic moment μ , or they might not even be made of the same stuff - sys 1 might be an ideal gas and system 2 a hunk of iron. In general, however, it will be true that, at equilibrium,

$$\boxed{T_1 = T_2}$$

where $T_j = \left(\frac{\partial U_j}{\partial S_j}\right)_{N_j}$

Temperature for this example:

$$T_1 = \left(\frac{\partial U_1}{\partial S_1} \right)_{N_1} = \frac{1}{\left(\partial S_1 / \partial U_1 \right)_{N_1}} = \frac{1}{k_B \frac{\partial}{\partial U_1} \left[\ln g_1(U) - \frac{2}{N_1} \left(\frac{U_1}{2\mu B} \right)^2 \right]}$$

$$= \frac{1}{k_B \left(-\frac{2U_1}{N_1 \mu^2 B^2} \right)} = -\frac{N_1}{U_1} \frac{\mu^2 B^2}{k_B}$$

use $k_B = \frac{U_1}{2\mu B}$

Similarly, $T_2 = -\frac{N_2}{U_2} \frac{\mu^2 B^2}{k_B} = T_1$

Is this negative?

Lowest energy \Leftrightarrow all spins $\uparrow \Leftrightarrow \Delta = N/2 \Leftrightarrow U$ negative $\Leftrightarrow T > 0$

so configs w/ $\Delta > 0$ have $T > 0$

configs w/ $\Delta < 0$ have $T < 0$

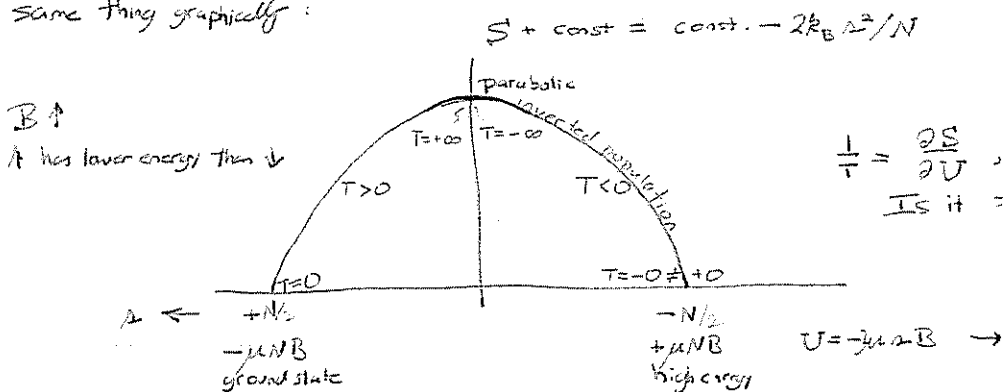
1/15/03

- Mon.: averages
- ergodic hypothesis
- microcanonical ensemble
- today: entropy
- temperature
- laws of thermodynamics
- Fri: C.P. Snow
- $e^{-E/(k_B T)}$
- Z
- class Homework 2

[Since I didn't specify when today HW would be due, it must be at midnight. In future, it will be due at start of class, when I shall hand out solutions.]

[finish p. 15]

same thing graphically:



To get slope at edges, we cannot use Gaussian approx'n, since $|a|$ is not $\ll N$.

(Indeed, Gaussian continues parabola down forever)

Slope at $A = +N/2 \approx \frac{\Delta S}{\Delta U} = \frac{S(\Delta = N/2 - 1) - S(\Delta = N/2)}{U(\Delta = N/2 - 1) - U(\Delta = N/2)}$

$$= \frac{k_B [\ln(g(N, N/2 - 1)) - \ln(g(N, N/2))]}{-\mu \left(\frac{N-2}{2} \right) B + \mu \frac{N}{2} B}$$

$$= \frac{k_B [\ln(N-1) - \ln(N)]}{\mu_B} = \frac{k_B (\ln N - 0)}{\mu_B} \xrightarrow{\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty}} \infty$$

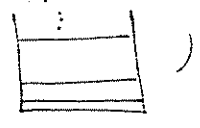
In limit of ∞ system, slope $\rightarrow +\infty$, so $T=0$ PENCIL IN PICTURE

For $\mu=0$, slope = 0, so $T=\infty$

At this temperature, distribution is same as if there were no magnetic field (practical limit: $k_B T \gg \mu_B$)

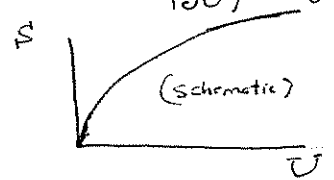
For $\mu < 0$, slope < 0 , so $T < 0$?! See appendix E & HW 2.2

Inverted population impossible in ~~isolated~~ system with arbitrarily high energy levels (e.g., particle in a box:

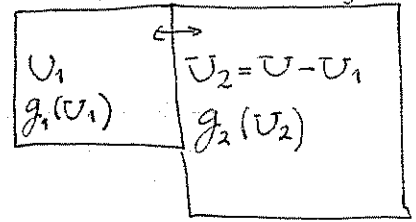


since $(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U})^{-1}$ grows monotonically with U .

See HW 2.3



TWO SUBSYSTEMS again

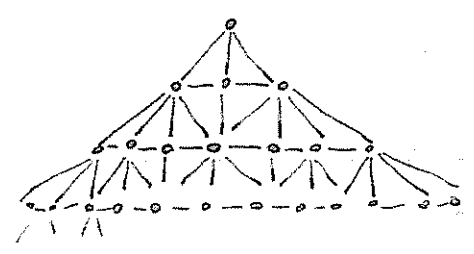


Say all energy starts out in subsys. 1: $U_1=U, U_2=0$
 What will happen to the macrostates of the two subsystems?
 ...

OK, so they've reached thermal equilibrium.

Is it possible for them to return to original state? [Laws of physics are reversible.] Is it likely? All microstates consistent with total U are equally likely, but there are vastly fewer corresponding to $U_1=U$ than to thermal equilibrium.

Schematic:
 dots = microstates
 rows = macrostates
 lines = possible transitions
 neither direction



- $N_1 = N ; U_1 = U$
- $N_2 = N - 1$
- $N_3 = N - 2$
- $N_4 = N - 3$
- ...

At each step, system can move to any connected point; it's possible but unlikely for it to evolve far from equilibrium

11/5/03: Supreme Court decided earlier today that 95 years (beyond an author's death) is not "forever."

2nd law of thermodynamics: entropy "never" decreases (monks Hamlet)

In a small system, it rarely decreases in a system with $\sim 10^{23}$ degrees of freedom, "never."

CARD GAME with students representing energy units (or equivalently, gas molecules)

1/15/03

Reversible processes: only infinitesimal deviations from equilibrium macrostate

irreversible: - dropping expensive Greek vase

arrow of time

- it appears that microscopic laws of physics don't provide it - only statistics

laws of thermodynamics:

0) If A B B are in thermal equilibrium, and B B C are, so are A B C. (Immediate consequence of $T = (\partial U / \partial S)_N$)

1) Heat is a form of energy transfer, and energy is conserved.

IT'S A ZERO-SUM GAME (perpetual-motion machines of the first kind)

2) The entropy of the whole universe cannot decrease in time.

YOU CAN'T WIN (Dilbert: perpetual-motion machines of the second kind?)

equivalent. A heat engine whose sole effect in one cycle of operation is to convert heat from some source into mechanical work. (Equivalent to be shown later in course).

3) Entropy \rightarrow constant (usually zero) monotonically as $T \rightarrow 0$

YOU CAN'T BREAK EVEN

19

1/17/03

Wed.: entropy, temperature

today: laws of thermo.

Boltzmann

finish pi8

G.P. Snow 1959 Rede lecture → Flanders + Swan (1964)

background to problem 2.3

Classical harmonic oscillator:
$$U = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2} kx^2$$

QM:
$$\mathcal{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{2} kx^2$$

$x = \text{pos}$ $m = \text{mass}$
 $p = \text{momentum}$ $k = \text{spring const.}$
 $k = \omega^2 m$

solutions: $E_m = (m + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega$, $m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

With simplify the algebra slightly by ignoring the 1/2 - for large N, it will not be significant in this problem

2/10/03

Go over pp 24-25

N oscillators; number j can have any $n_j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

subject to $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_N = n$ fixed

Microstates: partitioning the integer n among N boxes

$g(N, n) = \# \text{ ways to partition } n \text{ among } N \text{ boxes}$

"Generating function"

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} t^m = \frac{1}{1-t}$$
 for $0 < t < 1$ - t is just a formal device - will drop out @ end

proof: let $A = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} t^n$. Then $tA = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} t^n$, so $A - tA = t^0 = 1$, or $A = \frac{1}{1-t}$.

Consider a product of N of these sums:

$$\left(\sum_{m_1} t^{m_1} \right) \left(\sum_{m_2} t^{m_2} \right) \dots \left(\sum_{m_N} t^{m_N} \right) = \left(\frac{1}{1-t} \right)^N$$

Expand L.H.S. → various powers of t. A t^m

$t^{m_1} t^{m_2} \dots t^{m_N} = t^{\sum m_j} = t^n$

represents a config. in which osc. #j has energy E_{m_j} . We would like to fix $\sum m_j = n$. The number of terms contributing to t^n is $g(N, n)$, so

$$\left(\frac{1}{1-t}\right)^N = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} g(N,m) t^m$$

How can we pick out the one term we want? Take n derivatives w.r.t. t , then set $t \rightarrow 0$. Any term with $t^m, m > n$, will go to zero. Any term $m < n$ will be wiped out by the deriv. The term $m=n$ will have an unwanted $n!$ in front. So

$$g(N,n) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)^n \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} g(N,m) t^m$$
$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)^n (1-t)^{-N}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n!} N(N+1)\dots(N+n-1)$$
$$= \frac{(N+n-1)!}{n!(N-1)!}$$

(each deriv. has factors -1 from the exponent and -1 from $-t$)

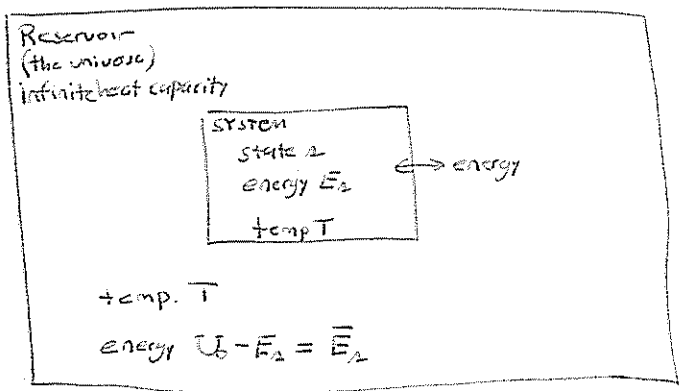
part a): get $\sigma = \ln g$ in Stirling approx
straightforward (3 lines)

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{k_B} S$$
$$\gamma = k_B T$$

part b): using $\frac{1}{T} = \left(\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial U}\right)_N$, solve for U
straightforward if you're careful
8 lines

When finished, it might be useful to sketch $U(\gamma)$

CANONICAL ENSEMBLE



possible energy levels of SYSTEM are E_1, E_2, \dots assume all distinct (just to simplify math)

to determine: prob. $P(E_z, T)$ that system is in state z

$$\sum_z P(E_z, T) = 1$$
 because the system must be in some state

(2)

To find $P(E_2)$, fix α . Then

multiplicity $g_{total} = g_{sys} \cdot g_{reservoir}$, but since we know $\alpha = g_{sys}^{-1} = 1$.

$$g = g_{reservoir} \equiv g_r(\bar{E}_r) \quad , \quad \bar{E}_r = U_0 - E_2$$

$$P(E_2) \propto g_r(\bar{E}_r) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{k_B} \bar{S}(\bar{E}_r)\right) \quad \text{where reservoir entropy}$$
$$\bar{S} = k_B \ln g_r$$

Consider states A, B w/ nearly same energies...

What is ratio of their probabilities?

$$\frac{P(E_{A_2})}{P(E_{B_2})} = \exp\left[\frac{1}{k_B} (\bar{S}(\bar{E}_{A_2}) - \bar{S}(\bar{E}_{B_2}))\right] \equiv \exp\left[\frac{1}{k_B} \Delta \bar{S}\right]$$

change in energy of system $\Delta E = E_{A_2} - E_{B_2}$
" " " " reservoir $\Delta \bar{E} = -\Delta E$

Since $\Delta \bar{E}$ is a small quantity, we may write

$$\Delta \bar{S} \approx \left(\frac{\partial \bar{S}}{\partial \bar{E}}\right)_N \Delta \bar{E}$$

\bar{S} is a func. of \bar{E} , so the partial is really a full derivative

$$= \frac{1}{T} \Delta \bar{E}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{T} \Delta E$$

Plug in:

$$\frac{P(E_{A_2})}{P(E_{B_2})} = \exp[-\Delta E / (k_B T)] \quad \text{so} \quad \boxed{P(E_2) \propto \exp[-E_2 / (k_B T)]} \quad \text{Boltzmann factor}$$

absolute prob. :
$$P(E_2) = \frac{\exp[-E_2 / (k_B T)]}{Z}$$

where
$$Z = \sum_i \text{Boltzmann factors} = \sum_i \exp[-E_i / (k_B T)]$$

Partition function

"Z" for Zusammen

(22)

1/22/03

Fri: laws

canonical ensemble

today: heat & work in the canonical ensemble

Fri: heat capacity, ideal gas

microcanonical ensemble (Ch 2): fixed U , all microstates equally likely

Canonical ensemble (Ch 3, problem 4 just turned in): U can be exchanged with a reservoir at fixed T

$$P_j = \text{Prob. of microstate } j = \frac{e^{-E_j/(k_B T)}}{Z} \quad \tau = k_B T$$

$$Z = \sum_{\text{states } j} e^{-E_j/(k_B T)}$$

$$\text{Average of any quantity } \chi: \langle \chi \rangle = \sum_j \chi_j P_j = \frac{\sum_j \chi_j e^{-E_j/(k_B T)}}{Z}$$

$$\text{trivial example: } \langle \alpha \rangle = \frac{\sum_j 2 e^{-E_j/(k_B T)}}{\sum_j e^{-E_j/(k_B T)}} = 2$$

less trivial: (do hw. 2.4?)

Another expression for U directly from Z (eqn. 3.12):

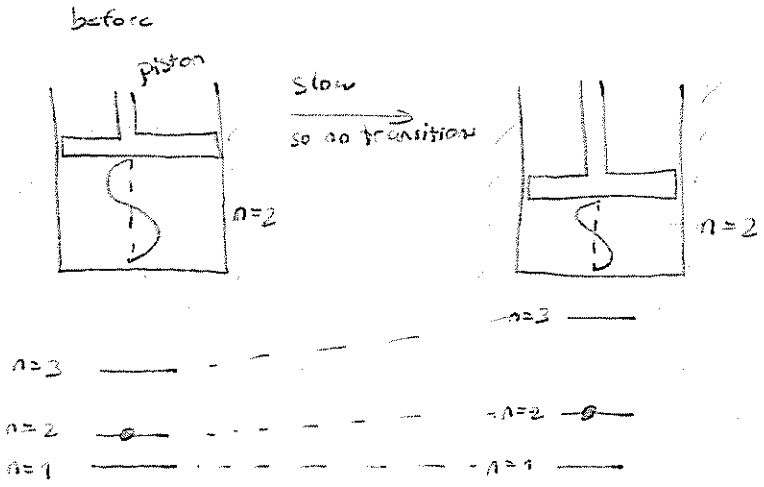
$$\begin{aligned} U &= \langle E \rangle \\ &= \sum_n \frac{E_n e^{-E_n \beta}}{Z} \quad \text{where } \beta = \frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{1}{k_B T} \\ &= -\frac{1}{Z} \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} Z \\ &= -\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} (\ln Z) \\ &= \tau^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \ln Z \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tau^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \ln Z &= \tau^2 \frac{\partial Z / \partial \tau}{Z} = \tau^2 \frac{\sum_j (-\tau)^{-2} (-E_j) e^{-E_j/\tau}}{Z} \\ &= \frac{\sum_j E_j e^{-E_j/\tau}}{Z} = \langle U \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Reversible processes: entropy of universe not changed

two special cases:

- 1) isentropic: entropy of system not changed (adiabatic)
- quantum states map on to each other



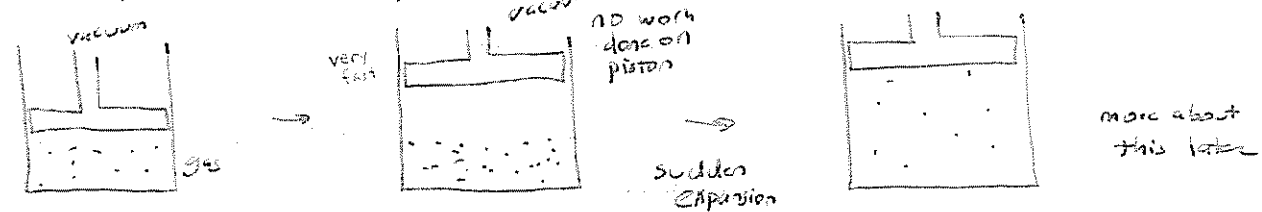
Energy has increased,
but # microstates
same \Rightarrow entropy unchanged

2) ~~isochoric~~ isovolumetric (isochoric)

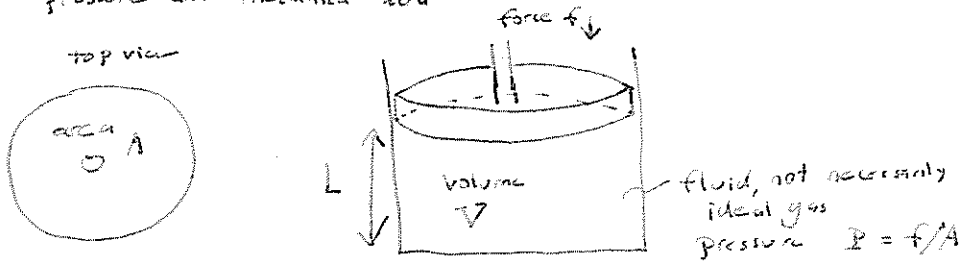
Add an infinitesimal amount of heat -
more energy \Rightarrow more microstates available \Rightarrow S of system increases
(reversible \Leftarrow S of reservoir decreases)

Reservoir @ T only infinitesimally higher than that of system (else irreversible)

Another example of an irreversible process:



Pressure and mechanical work



Will change volume by means of a piston, which changes just one of the 3 dims.
Assume U, V good state variables (N fixed), so it doesn't matter how we
change V (so long as it's not too fast). Both changes shape in all 3 dims.

Move piston slowly - not accelerating \Rightarrow |force of gas on piston| = |force of piston on gas| = PA.

work done on gas. = $(\Delta U)_S$ adds energy to gas
without change in entropy (see above)

ΔL small, so assume ΔL constant

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= F \cdot (-\Delta L)_S && \text{Compression: } \Delta L < 0 \\
 &= -PA \cdot (\Delta L)_S \\
 &= -P(\Delta V)_S \\
 \text{or } P &= -\left(\frac{\Delta U}{\Delta V}\right)_S = -\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_S
 \end{aligned}$$

$S = k_B \sigma$

state vars. U, V, N - N fixed, so just U, V
 $S = S(U, V)$

A infinitesimal change in S could involve both dU and dV , so

$$dS = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_{V, N} dU + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_{U, N} dV \quad (\text{also } + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N}\right)_{U, V} dN)$$

I'll drop N subscripts until later chapter.

Can we choose $dU = (SU)_S$ and $dV = (SV)_S$ together such that there's no change in entropy of system?

$$\begin{aligned}
 dS = 0 &= \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_V (SU)_S + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_U (SV)_S \\
 \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_U &= - \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_V}_{T^{-1}} \underbrace{\left(\frac{SU}{SV}\right)_S}_{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_S} = -P
 \end{aligned}$$

so $P = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_U$

Going back to dS ,

$$dS = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_V}_{T^{-1}} dU + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_U}_{P/T} dV$$

mult. by T: $dU = TdS - PdV$ thermodynamic identity

Interpretation: $-PdV$ is work done on gas
 TdS is heat added to gas

Heat is work and work is heat (1st law of thermo.)

The thermodynamic identity makes U a function of S and V: $U = U(S, V) \Rightarrow dU = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S}\right)_V dS + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_S dV$

Physicists like minimization principles. E.g., in QM, we're often interested in minimizing the energy, U. Why? We imagine a system in thermal contact with a reservoir at $T=0$, or at least very cold, so that as much as possible of the energy flows into reservoir.

If we're at non-0 T, we don't minimize U — e.g., problem 2.4, where only MM minimal energy, but was not the most probable state.

Define Helmholtz free energy $F = U - TS = U - T_0 S$

Intuitive meaning / motivation: lower U is good, but so is higher S.

At $T=0$, $F=U$, so only energy counts
 As $T \uparrow$, maximizing S becomes increasingly important.

Does it succeed?

If we hold T const, $dF = dU - TdS$.
 If we ^{also} hold V const, $dF=0$ by 1st law

(*)

1/21/04

$dF = dU - TdS - SdT$
 by thermo ident = $-PdV - SdT$, so $F = F(V, T) \rightarrow$

Thus, at equilibrium, if $dT=dV=0$, we have $dF=0$.

\Rightarrow F has an extremum at equilibrium
 book shows that it's a minimum.

Context: F is the "thermodynamic pot'l"
 when $dT=dV=0$. There are others
 $= dN$
 for different processes (e.g., $dT=dP=0 \rightarrow$ Gibbs)

1) constant volume $\rightarrow dV=0$

$\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T}\right)_V = -S$

2) constant temperature $\rightarrow dT=0$

$\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}\right)_T = -P$

two consequences of (*) and thermodynamic identity:

Since

$dF = -PdV - SdT$

or $P = -\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T + T\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T$ for isothermal process
 "energy pressure" "entropy pressure"

1/24/03 Wed: $U = \langle E \rangle = \frac{\sum E_j e^{-E_j/kT}}{\sum e^{-E_j/kT}}$
 $P = -\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_S = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_U$
 $dU = TdS - PdV$

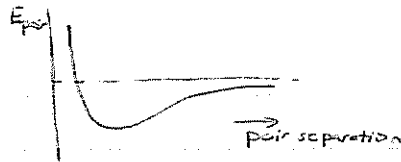
today: Helmholtz F
 polymers
 Problems

Mon.: ideal gas
 UV catastrophe

finish old

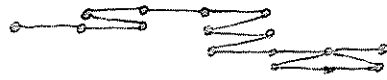
problem 3.10

Most solids expand when heated:



However, polymers — pseudo-1-dim'l — shrink.

Model: random walk — each link as likely ± 1 as -1 (purely entropic model — no energy)



minus "pressure" = string tension

1 dim'l TD identity $dU = TdS + f dl$
 "volume" = length
 right units: dyne·cm = erg

Instead of $P = +T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_U$, we get

$$f = -T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial l}\right)_U$$

GOAL: calculate string tension f as function of temperature

a) with N links, each of length ρ , how many ways are there to get total length l ?

No diff. from ± 1 binary-spin problem

$$l = (N_+ - N_-)\rho \equiv 2nr\rho \quad n \text{ is "link" excess}$$

$$g(N, \pm n) = \frac{N!}{\left(\frac{1}{2}N+n\right)! \left(\frac{1}{2}N-n\right)!}$$

We don't care if it's ± 2 or -2 , so

$$G \equiv g(N, -n) + g(N, n) = \frac{2N!}{\left(\frac{1}{2}N+n\right)! \left(\frac{1}{2}N-n\right)!} \quad \text{is relevant multiplicity}$$

This is \rightarrow
 K&K: part of
 view — if chain
 is ordered, simple
 don't double (overcount) —
 however, addition of $\log 2$
 decreases mult
 affect basic $\log 2$ problem

A) In Gaussian approx., $G = 2g(N,0) e^{-2a^2/N}$

$$F = k_B \ln G = k_B [\ln(2g(N,0)) - 2a^2/N] = k_B [\ln(2g(N,0)) - \frac{l^2}{2\rho^2 N}]$$

c) String tension $f = -T \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial l} \right)_T$

No energy U at all in this model, only entropy

$$= -T k_B (-1) \frac{l}{\rho^2 N}$$

$$F = k_B T l / (\rho^2 N)$$

$T \uparrow \rightarrow$ tension $\uparrow \rightarrow$ curl up

(To get equilibrium length we'd need a more realistic model with U in it.)

DEAD

Getting F directly from Z w/o having to calc. S or U :

$$U = F + TS = F - T \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T} \right)_V$$

other: a diff. eqn. for F ,

which both solves to get $F = -k_B T \ln Z$

Here's an alternative derivation, but it relies on an identity. Let $w_\alpha = \frac{e^{-\beta E_\alpha}}{Z}$ be the prob. of being in state α . Then

$$F = -k_B \sum_\alpha w_\alpha \ln w_\alpha$$

Don't think it's in K&K, but it's a very important form - starting point for information theory (computer science)

Proof: use canonical ensemble with total of V systems

(out of Mandl Ch. 2)

$$v_1 = V w_1 \text{ of them are in state 1}$$

$$v_2 = V w_2 \text{ of them ... state 2}$$

⋮

total v



$$\frac{v!}{v_1!(v-v_1)!} \frac{(v-v_1)!}{v_2!(v-v_1-v_2)!} \dots$$

$$g_{ensemble} = \frac{v!}{v_1! v_2! \dots}$$

$$S_{ensemble} = k_B \ln g_{ens.} = k_B [\ln(v!) - \sum_\alpha \ln(v_\alpha!)]$$

$$\approx k_B [v \ln v - \sum_\alpha (v_\alpha \ln v_\alpha - v_\alpha)] \quad \text{Stirling}$$

$$= k_B [v \ln v - \sum_\alpha v_\alpha \ln v_\alpha] \quad \text{since } \sum_\alpha v_\alpha = v$$

Now write $\sum_{\alpha} v_{\alpha} \ln v_{\alpha} = \sum_{\alpha} v w_{\alpha} \ln(v w_{\alpha})$

so $S_{ens} = v k_B [\ln v - \sum_{\alpha} w_{\alpha} (\ln v + \ln w_{\alpha})]$

$= v k_B [\ln v - \ln v \underbrace{\sum_{\alpha} w_{\alpha}}_1 - \sum_{\alpha} w_{\alpha} \ln w_{\alpha}]$

$= -v k_B \sum_{\alpha} w_{\alpha} \ln w_{\alpha}$

but $S' = \frac{S_{ens}}{v}$, so $S' = -k_B \sum_{\alpha} w_{\alpha} \ln w_{\alpha}$

Now to get F.

$S = -k_B \sum_{\alpha} w_{\alpha} \ln \left(\frac{e^{-\beta E_{\alpha}}}{Z} \right)$

$= -k_B \sum_{\alpha} w_{\alpha} \cdot (-\beta E_{\alpha} - \ln Z)$

$= \frac{+k_B}{k_B T} \sum_{\alpha} w_{\alpha} E_{\alpha} + k_B \ln Z \sum_{\alpha} w_{\alpha}$

$= \frac{U}{T} + k_B \ln Z$

$T S = U + k_B T \ln Z$

$U - T S = -k_B T \ln Z$
 $= F =$

(29)

Talking points on problems:

1) Give them $Z = 1 + e^{-\beta E}$

Show how to get U directly (NOT the way problem asks them to do):

$$U = \langle E \rangle = \frac{0 + E e^{-\beta E}}{Z} = \frac{E e^{-\beta E}}{1 + e^{-\beta E}} = \frac{E}{e^{\beta E} + 1}$$
 Use this as check.

1/3/00

2) This M is magnetization per unit volume

$$\frac{N}{V} = n \quad \text{number density}$$

Let $E_{\uparrow} = -mB$ (for one spin)

$$E_{\downarrow} = +mB$$

$$Z = (e^{mB\beta} + e^{-mB\beta})^N \quad \text{explain why}$$

$$= (2 \cosh[mB\beta])^N$$

I did this problem essentially same way as #1.

Review of hyperbolic funcs.:

$$\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}; \quad \frac{d}{dx} \cosh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \equiv \sinh x \quad (\text{note: no sign})$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sinh x = \cosh x$$

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$$

$$\frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x} = \tanh x$$

$$\text{sech } x = \frac{1}{\cosh x}$$

$$\tanh^2 x = 1 - \text{sech}^2 x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tanh x = \text{sech}^2 x$$

3) remember ident. from last week $1 + x + x^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-x}$ for $0 < x < 1$.

1/2/00

1/27/03 last week:

$$\text{pressure } P = - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V} \right)_S = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V} \right)_U = - \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V} \right)_T = - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V} \right)_T + T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V} \right)_T$$

units for reversible process

$$dU = TdS - PdV = \text{heat} + \text{work}$$

$U = \text{internal energy}$

$$\text{Helmholtz } F = U - TS = -k_B T \ln Z$$

$T = \text{temp.}$

$$S = -k_B \sum_i w_i \ln w_i$$

$$(w_i = e^{-\beta E_i} / Z)$$

$Z = \text{partition func.}$

today: heat capacity, ideal gas

Wed: UV catastrophe + Planck

$$\text{Heat Capacity } C_V = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T} \right)_V \text{ per KBK [Note: they use same symbol (!) for dimensionless heat capacity, } \gamma \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V} \right)_T]$$

$$\text{Units: } K \frac{J/K}{K} = J/K$$

i.e., how much HEAT per unit change in TEMP.

Ask: which is easier to heat, air or water?

H₂O: large $\frac{C_V}{\text{volume}}$, air: small $\frac{C_V}{\text{volume}}$

In ~~physics~~ chemistry, $C_p = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T} \right)_p$ more important (expts usually @ const. pressure)

$$C_V \neq C_p$$

gases: noticeably different

liquids: somewhat different [ideal: $dV=0$, so $C_V = C_p$]

solids: barely different, so people usually use C_V , which is easier to calc.

KBK don't properly define or motivate C_V , so I'll fill that in.

$$C_V \equiv \left(\frac{dQ}{dT} \right)_V \text{ heat flow into body per unit temp. change}$$

heat flow dQ not a full differential, because there's no defined "Q"

For a reversible process,

$$dQ = \cancel{TdS} TdS \text{ - the heat term in } dU = TdS - PdV$$

In general, $dQ \leq TdS$

from which $\left(\frac{dQ}{dT} \right)_X \equiv T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T} \right)_X$ for any thermo. variable X (except S or T)

so $X = V$
 $\rightarrow C_V = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T} \right)_V$

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Since $dU = TdS - PdV$, @ constant V , $(dU)_V = T(dS)_V$ (heat only)

$$\text{divide by } (dT)_V: \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_V$$

thus $C_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V$

set $X=P$: $C_P = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial T}\right)_P = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_P$

Note that $C_P \neq \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_P$. Instead, consider

$U = U(T, P)$ is not hard, but we need it here, since an extensive quantity cannot be a function only of intensive quantities (so V and S are func^{ns} of T & P).

Aside: any two vars. out of S, T, V, P, U determine the others.

if at least one is extensive, so it always work for T, P . (Remember V is fixed)

Then $dU = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_P dT + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial P}\right)_T dP$ similar to dV

$$TdS = \delta Q = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_P dT + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial P}\right)_T dP}_{\delta U} + P \left[\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P dT + \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P}\right)_T dP \right]$$

Fix P , so that $dP = 0$. Then

$$\delta Q|_P = \left[\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_P + P \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \right] dT|_P$$

$$C_P = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial T}\right)_P = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_P + P \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_P \quad \text{where enthalpy } H = U + PV$$

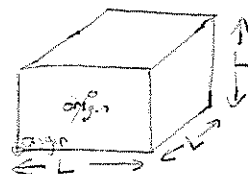
specific heat

$$c = \begin{cases} C/\text{mass} \\ C/\text{volume} \\ C/\text{number} \\ C/\text{number-of-moles} \end{cases} \quad \text{depending on book}$$

example calc. of C_V : see $K+K$ pp 62-63

Ideal gas : non-interacting (or almost — need to be able to exchange energy with walls until equilibrium reached. Once the gas has reached equilibrium, there is no longer any net exchange of energy, so we can turn off even this weak interaction.)

Difference between interacting and non-interacting particles in a box
 $N = \#$ particles spinless, ea. of mass M



interacting :
$$\mathcal{H} = \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2M} (\nabla_1^2 + \nabla_2^2 + \dots + \nabla_N^2) + V(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \dots, \vec{r}_N) \right] \Psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \dots, \vec{r}_N)$$

 $\mathcal{H}\Psi = E\Psi$ *Much too hard*

non-interacting :
$$\mathcal{H}_i = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_i^2 \psi_i(\vec{r}_i) \quad , \quad \mathcal{H} = \sum_i \mathcal{H}_i$$

 $\mathcal{H}\psi_i = E_i \psi_i$

Solution :
$$\psi_i(\vec{r}_i) = A \sin(n_x i \pi x/L) \sin(n_y i \pi y/L) \sin(n_z i \pi z/L)$$

 $n_x, n_y, n_z > 0$
 wave func. guaranteed to vanish at $x, y, z = 0, L$

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_i \mathcal{H}_i$$

$$\Psi = \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{sym.} \\ \text{antisym.} \end{matrix} \right\} (\psi_1(\vec{r}_1) \psi_2(\vec{r}_2) \dots \psi_N(\vec{r}_N))$$

total energy
$$E = \sum_i E_i$$

$$E_i = \frac{\hbar^2}{2M} \left(\frac{\pi}{L} \right)^2 (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2)$$

Partition function for 1 atom (set $i=1$ and drop most of subscripts i)

$$Z_1 = \sum_{n_x} \sum_{n_y} \sum_{n_z} \exp[-\beta E] \stackrel{\text{classical}}{\approx} \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty dn_x dn_y dn_z \exp[-\alpha^2 (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2)]$$

where $\alpha^2 \equiv \beta \frac{\hbar^2}{2M} \left(\frac{\pi}{L} \right)^2$

$$Z_1 = \left(\int_0^\infty dn e^{-\alpha^2 n^2} \right)^3 \stackrel{\substack{\text{Gaussian} \\ \text{integral:} \\ \text{appendix}}}{=} \frac{\pi^{3/2}}{8\alpha^3}$$

$$= L^3 \left(\frac{\pi 2M}{\beta \hbar^2 \pi^2 4} \right)^{3/2} = V \left(\frac{M T}{2 \pi \hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \equiv \frac{n_Q}{n} \quad \text{with } n = \frac{1}{V} = \text{concentration (\# density)}$$

Since Z_1 dimensionless, n_Q also has units of concentration:
 "quantum concentration" $n_Q = \left(\frac{m T}{2 \pi \hbar^2} \right)^{3/2}$

If $n \ll n_Q$, gas is essentially classical

If $n \geq n_Q$, QM indispensible (some states may try to have multiple occupancy, and QM has st. to say about that)

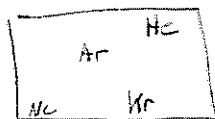
Thermal av. energy $U_1 = k_B T^2 \left(\frac{\partial \ln Z_1}{\partial T} \right)_V$ (p22 of notes, 1/22/03)

$$= T^2 \left(\frac{\partial \ln Z_1}{\partial T} \right)_V$$

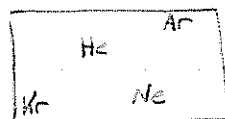
$$= T^2 \frac{1}{Z_1} \frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{T} Z_1 = \frac{3}{2} T = \boxed{\frac{3}{2} k_B T}$$

energy for a gas of 1 atom \rightarrow $\frac{\text{energy}}{\text{atom}}$ for ideal gas

If we had 1 atom of He, 1 of Ne, 1 of Ar, 1 of Kr, etc., then



and



would be different configurations, so

partition function would be $Z = \sum_{n_1} \sum_{n_2} \dots \sum_{n_N} e^{-\beta(\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3 + \dots + \epsilon_N)}$

$$= \left(\sum_{n_1} e^{-\beta \epsilon_1} \right) \left(\sum_{n_2} e^{-\beta \epsilon_2} \right) \dots \left(\sum_{n_N} e^{-\beta \epsilon_N} \right)$$

$$= Z_1 Z_2 Z_3 \dots Z_N.$$

However, typically we have only one kind of atom, and the two boxes above (with all the atoms He) are the same config. Since we've overcounted, divide by $N!$:

$$Z = \frac{Z_1^N}{N!} = \frac{1}{N!} (n_Q V)^N$$

Dividing by $N!$ resolved the "Gibbs paradox," in which the entropy comes out wrong (see problem 5). This trick is OK so long as prob. of multiple occupancy of a single state is low. Correct treatment Ch. 6, 7.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Free energy } F &= -k_B T \ln Z = -N k_B T \ln Z_1 + k_B T \ln(N!) \\ &\approx N \ln N - N \\ &= -N k_B T \ln(n_Q V) + k_B T (N \ln N - N) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{pressure } P = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}\right)_T = N k_B T \frac{n_Q}{n_Q V} = N k_B T / V$$

or $PV = N k_B T$ ideal-gas law

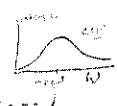
note that Q drops out here and stays

1/21/03 Mon.: C_V, C_P
 $PV = N k_B T$

today: UV catastrophe, Planck

~~Fri~~: thermal radiation, other masses, Bose

ⓐ A body warmer than its surroundings gives off light - most light at ω near a particular freq. characteristic of the body's temperature (e.g., red hot...)
Can we understand this?



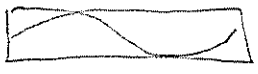
classical equipartition: energy in each mode = $\frac{1}{2} k_B T$ (e.g., $U = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T$ in ideal gas: 3N modes)

energy in Hohlraum (1D)

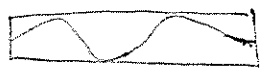


$$E_0 = 2 \int \left(\frac{E^2}{8\pi} + \frac{B^2}{8\pi} \right) dV \approx \left[\frac{1}{2} k_B T + \frac{1}{2} k_B T \right] = k_B T$$

note: cgs (Gaussian) units



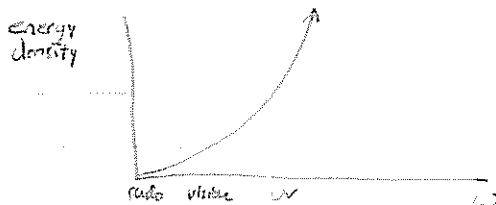
$$E_1 = 2 k_B T$$



$$E_2 = 2 k_B T$$

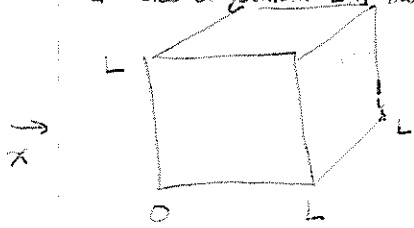
total energy $E = \infty k_B T$ not good

Careful classical treatment by Rayleigh & Jeans



Starts off with expt. agreeing with expt.

classical or quantum EM modes in a cavity w/ conducting walls - cube of side L:



sourceless Maxwell (vacuum units)

To solve:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \vec{E} &= \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \\ \nabla \times \vec{E} &= -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \\ \nabla \times \vec{B} &= \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} c^2 \nabla^2 \vec{E} &= \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2} = -\omega^2 \vec{E} \\ c^2 \nabla^2 \vec{B} &= \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2} = -\omega^2 \vec{B} \end{aligned}$$

wave eqns

standing-wave solution:

$$\vec{E}_n = E_{n_0} \overset{\text{arbitrary}}{\sin \omega t} \cos(n_x \pi x/L) \sin(n_y \pi y/L) \sin(n_z \pi z/L)$$

\swarrow comes from b.c. on \vec{B} at surface ($B_{\perp} = 0$)
 \nwarrow $E_n = 0$ at \parallel faces ($y, z = 0, L$)

$$E_y = E_{y_0} \dots$$

$$E_z = E_{z_0} \dots$$

constraint on choice of $\vec{E}_{n_0}, E_{y_0}, E_{z_0}$:

$$0 = \nabla \cdot \vec{E} \Rightarrow E_x n_x + E_y n_y + E_z n_z \equiv \vec{E}_0 \cdot \vec{n} = 0$$

similarly, $\vec{B}_0 \cdot \vec{n} = 0$. Furthermore, $|\vec{E}_0| = |\vec{B}_0|$ by curl parts of Maxwell.

With \vec{E}_0 & \vec{n} fixed \rightarrow 2 choices for \vec{B}_0 .

dispersion:

$$c^2 \nabla^2 \vec{E} = \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\frac{c^2 \pi^2}{L^2} (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2) \vec{E} = \omega^2 \vec{E}$$

mode labeled by 3 ints.

$$\omega(n_x, n_y, n_z) = \frac{c\pi}{L} \sqrt{n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2} \quad \text{equidistribution} \rightarrow \text{serious trouble}$$

Planck: drop freedom to put any energy in each ~~mode~~ mode.

$$\text{mode } \omega_n = \omega(n_x, n_y, n_z):$$

possible energies

$$\text{Classical: } E = \int \left(\frac{\vec{E}_0^2}{8\pi} + \frac{\vec{B}_0^2}{8\pi} \right) dV \propto E_0^2, \text{ continuous}$$

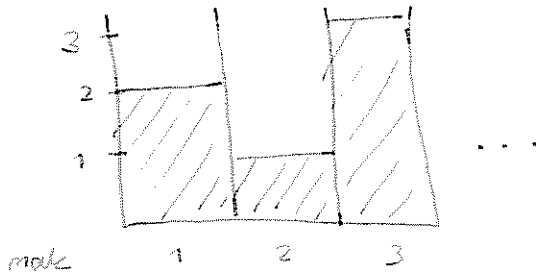
$$\text{Planck: } E = n \hbar \omega_n, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

He thought in terms of interaction between $\vec{E} + \vec{B}$ & atomic states
 In walls (ad lib. on atomic spectra & attempts to explain them via oscillators);
 now we quantize the fields themselves & add $\frac{1}{2}$ to n , so $E = (n + \frac{1}{2})\hbar\omega$ -
 back to "zero-point" energy - QED needed to make sense of it.

ω_n : the " n^{th} " mode of the cavity

n_n : occupation # of the n^{th} mode
 = # photons in n^{th} mode

QM way to count occupation #'s:



The modes, not the photons, are the physical objects. It makes no sense to name a "particular" photon Fred and ask in which mode Fred sits.

Note: photons have no rest mass, so they're easy to create and destroy (subject to conservation of energy, momentum, and angular momentum).

THERE ARE NO PARTICLES IN QM, only fields (modes, states).
 Each field has an occupation number.

When we say "one photon" or "one electron," it's shorthand for a mode with some occupation number. If an e^- makes a transition from one mode (state) to another, we really mean that one mode's occup. # up by 1, another's down by 1.

Stat. mech. of photon modes

Photon modes called Bosonic after Satyrananda Bose - each mode may have any occupation number. Further, massless \rightarrow total occupation number not conserved.

partition func. for mode n

$$Z = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega_n\beta} + e^{-\frac{3}{2}\hbar\omega_n\beta} + e^{-\frac{5}{2}\hbar\omega_n\beta} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \exp(-[n + \frac{1}{2}]\hbar\omega_n\beta)$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega_n\beta}}{1 - \exp(-\hbar\omega_n\beta)}$$

prob. n^{th} mode has occup # $n = P(n) = \frac{\exp(-2n\hbar\omega\beta) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega\beta}}{Z}$

thermal ave: $\langle n \rangle = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega\beta} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n \exp(-2n\hbar\omega\beta)}{Z} = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega\beta}}{Z} \left(-\frac{1}{2\hbar\omega\beta}\right) \frac{d}{d\hbar} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \exp(-2n\hbar\omega\beta)$

$$= \frac{-e^{-\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega\beta}}{\omega\beta Z} \frac{d}{d\hbar} \frac{1}{1-e^{-\hbar\omega\beta}}$$

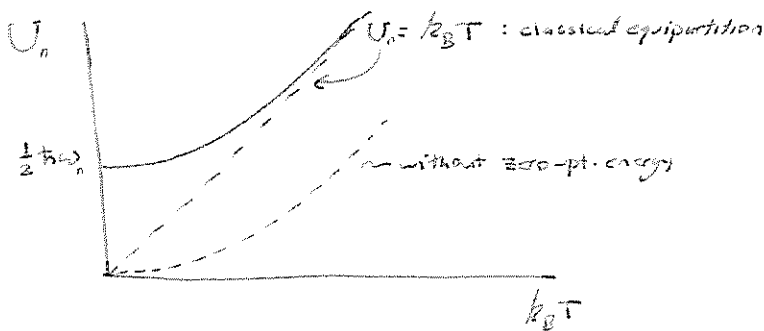
$$= \frac{(-1)\omega\beta e^{-\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega\beta}}{(1-e^{-\hbar\omega\beta})^2}$$

$\langle n \rangle = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega\beta} e^{-\hbar\omega\beta}}{(1-e^{-\hbar\omega\beta})^2} (1-e^{-\hbar\omega\beta}) e^{\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega\beta}$

$$= \frac{1}{e^{\hbar\omega\beta} - 1}$$

ave. energy in mode n

$$U_n = \langle E \rangle = \left[\langle n \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \right] \hbar\omega = \left[\frac{1}{e^{\hbar\omega\beta} - 1} + \frac{1}{2} \right] \hbar\omega \quad (\propto k_B T \text{ if } k_B T \gg \hbar\omega)$$



classical limit: $k_B T \gg \hbar\omega$ (so that discreteness of levels is invisible)

$\rightarrow \langle n \rangle = \frac{1}{1 + \hbar\omega\beta - 1} = \frac{k_B T}{\hbar\omega}$

ave. energy in mode $n \approx \hbar\omega \langle n \rangle = k_B T$

EQUIPARTITION ($\frac{1}{2} k_B T$ kinetic + $\frac{1}{2} k_B T$ potential)

$\frac{1}{2} m v^2$ $\frac{1}{2} k x^2$

(to next order in Taylor expansion: the $1/2$ cancels out.)

subtract zero-point energy $\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega$ (dotted)

incl. zero-pt., $U_{\text{total}} = 2 \sum_{\text{polarization}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n = 2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\hbar\omega}{\exp(\hbar\omega\beta) - 1}$

Replace $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}$ by \int_0^{∞}

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \approx \frac{1}{8} \int_0^{\infty} dn \int_0^{\pi} d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi n^2 \sin\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{8} \int_0^{\infty} 4\pi n^2 dn$$

where $n^2 = n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2$

STEP 4
Planck first! [Plug in $\omega_n = \frac{c\pi}{L} n$, $L^3 = V$ (volume)

maybe do after Planck

$$U_{\text{total}} = V \frac{\pi^2}{15 \hbar^3 c^3} (k_B T)^4$$

or energy density in cavity $\frac{U}{V} = \frac{\pi^2}{15 \hbar^3 c^3} (k_B T)^4$

$\propto T^4$: Stefan-Boltzmann

Go back to integral over n to find out how much energy density @ each freq.:

maybe do FIRST

$$\frac{U}{V} = \frac{\pi}{V} \int_0^\infty dn n^2 \frac{\hbar \omega_n}{\exp(\hbar \omega_n / \beta) - 1}$$

change vars.: $n = \frac{L}{\pi c} \omega = \frac{V^{1/3} \omega}{\pi c}$

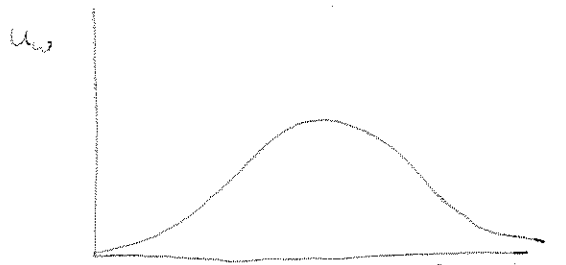
[Do it in mind! $\frac{dn}{n} = \frac{d\omega}{\omega}$]

$$\frac{U}{V} = \frac{\pi}{V} \frac{1}{\hbar} \int_0^\infty \frac{V \omega^3}{\pi^3 c^3} \frac{1}{\exp(\hbar \omega / \beta) - 1} d\omega$$

$$\equiv \int_0^\infty d\omega u_\omega \quad \text{where } u(\omega) = \frac{\text{energy}}{\text{volume} \cdot \text{frequency}} = \text{spectral density}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\hbar} \frac{\omega^3}{\pi^2 c^3} \frac{1}{\exp(\hbar \omega / \beta) - 1}$$

Planck radiation law



starts out like Rayleigh-Jeans

but no ultraviolet catastrophe (we've subtracted zero-pt.)

1/31/03 Wed: UV catastrophe

today: Planck

PM: Debye-phonons - Gr

PROBABLY EWJP
PAGE OR JLS
SUMMARY

How hot is orange hot?

Say peak of Planck @ 600nm

$$0 = \frac{dU_\omega}{d\omega} = \frac{1}{\hbar\beta} \frac{dU_x}{dx}, \quad x = \hbar\omega\beta$$

$$= (\text{const.}) \frac{d}{dx} \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} = (\text{const.}) \left(\frac{3x^2}{e^x - 1} - \frac{x^3 e^x}{(e^x - 1)^2} \right)$$

$$\text{so } 3(1 - e^{-x}) = x$$

zero at $x_0 = 2.82$ (numerical)

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi c}{600\text{nm}} = \frac{\pi \cdot 6 \cdot 10^{10} \frac{\text{cm}}{\text{sec}}}{6 \cdot 10^2 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{cm}} = \pi \cdot 10^{15} \text{sec}^{-1}$$

$$\hbar = 1.1 \cdot 10^{-27} \text{ erg sec}$$

$$\text{so } \beta = \frac{x_0}{\hbar\omega} = \frac{2.82}{\hbar\omega} = 8.2 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ erg}^{-1}$$

$$k_B = 1.4 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ erg/K}$$

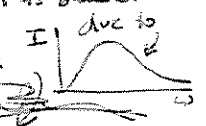
$$\Rightarrow T \approx 8800\text{K}$$

$$k_B T = \frac{1}{\beta} = \frac{\hbar\omega}{2.82} \text{ ~ this const. of order 1}$$

?
too hot
per second?

It's correct, although we might perceive this as "bluish" due to

Reason: distrib rather than single number; write $U(\omega) = \text{const.} \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1}$



$$\int_0^\infty U_\omega d\omega = \int_0^\infty U_\lambda d\lambda$$

$$\omega = \frac{c}{2\pi\lambda}, \text{ so } d\omega = -\frac{c}{2\pi} \lambda^{-2} d\lambda$$

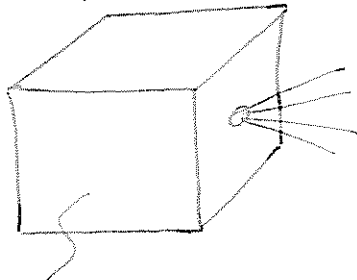
thus $U_\omega \neq U_\lambda$, and they don't even have their maxima at same place
(i.e.; $\omega_{\text{max}} \neq \frac{c}{2\pi\lambda_{\text{max}}}$)

do integrals $\rightarrow \lambda_{\text{max}}$ given by

$$x' = \frac{\hbar c}{T\lambda_{\text{max}}} = 4.965$$

so if ~~most important wavelength~~ is 600nm, $T \approx 3500\text{K}$

Blackbody radiation



perfectly reflecting walls do not emit (perfect: incoming light reflects elastically, neither gains nor loses energy)

$$\text{flux density } J_U = \frac{\text{total power}}{\text{area of hole}} = \frac{\text{erg/sec}}{\text{cm}^2} \text{ or } \frac{\text{Watt}}{\text{m}^2} \text{ or } \frac{RT^4}{\text{fortnight} \cdot \text{fortnight}^2}$$

$$J_U \propto U \quad \text{energy density in Hohlraum}$$

$J_U \propto c$ faster to get energy out
proportionality factor turns out to be $\frac{1}{4}$ (prob. 4.15)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{so } J_U &= \sigma_B T^4 \\ \sigma_B &= \frac{\pi^2 k_B^4}{60h^3 c^2} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ Stefan-Boltzmann law}$$

$$\approx 5.670 \cdot 10^{-5} \frac{\text{erg/sec}}{\text{cm}^2 \text{K}^4}$$

Black body: perfect absorber of light (that doesn't mean no emission: at equilibrium, blackbody emits as much as it absorbs. So to test whether something is a blackbody, we need non-equilibrium light - e.g., flashlight).

Small hole is ideal black surface because very little of the incident radiation will be reflected back.

Consider non-black puck

absorptivity $0 \leq a < 1$: 0 means perfect reflection, like walls
1 means black, like hole

Anything not absorbed is reflected, so $a = 1 - r$, $r = \text{reflectivity}$

How much does puck emit? Put it in front of hole, wait for equilibrium. It's continually absorbing energy from the Hohlraum at a rate a times that of a black body. For there to be equilibrium, it must give up the same flux. This emissivity = a , i.e., flux density from a non-black body is

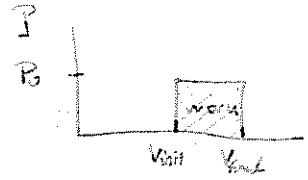
$$a J_U \quad (0 \text{ for perfect reflector}).$$

This is why thermal insulation for space probes consists of nothing but layers of highly reflective metal foil. This also used in low-T physics, where ΔT very large so $T_1^4 - T_2^4$ most significant source of heat flow. Also in windows of office bldgs, etc.

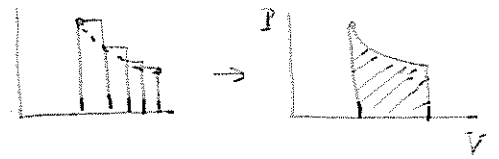
2/3/02

Fri.: Planck
 today: applications - Nyquist - phonons
 wed.: Gibbs distribution, Chem. pot.

some questions about problem 1 - work done by gas on piston @ constant pressure = $P_0 (V_{final} - V_{init})$



If P & V both change,



isotherm: $PV = Nk_B T = n^{th} \cdot RT = \text{const.}$

finish old notes (FH) - first recall Stefan-Boltzmann $J_\nu = \alpha \sigma_B T^4$ ($\alpha = \text{absorptivity}$)

note: $3.5K \approx 1K$

right: see Wilson's
 Metal lecture

apt. c.
 M...
 ...
 ...

Q. The cosmic black-body radiation was discovered in 1965 - 2.7K, almost isotropic. Knowing nothing at all about the experimental apparatus, you should nonetheless be able to guess one liquid that was essential for accurate measurements.
 A. liq. helon @ 4.2K, evaporates readily \rightarrow ~1K. If expt. isn't colder than 2.7K, how can it see 2.7K (except maybe by coloriscty).

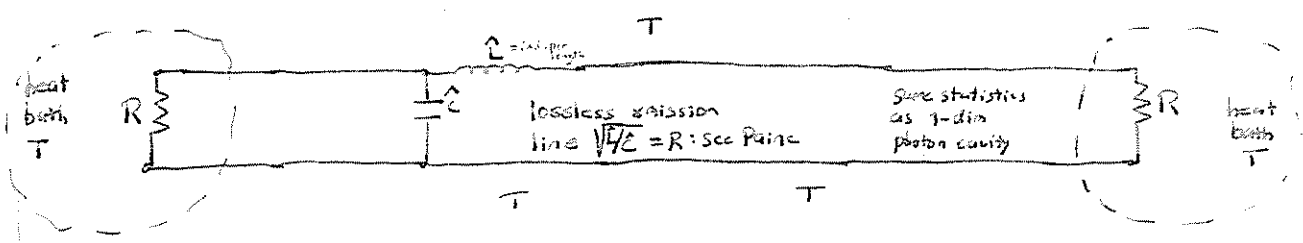
Q. Why can we see TV, radio, which is even colder?

A. non-equilibrium energy density. TV shows: radiostat \leftarrow blackbody

Nyquist/Johnson noise in a resistor with zero mean current ($\langle I \rangle = 0$)



V should be zero $\langle V \rangle = 0$, but there will be fluctuations: $\langle V^2 \rangle \neq 0$.



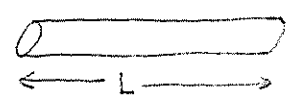
obviously not right: mean noise cancelled

across each resistor $V = \frac{2IR}{R}$ since we have two resistors



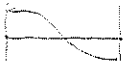
explain $2R$ (Nyquist 1928 argument).
 EME from other resistor. Load resistance $2R$ and source current $I = \frac{V}{2R}$

Think of line as a 1-dim. cavity



L will drop out: use it just for counting.

(42)



Allowed modes have wavelengths $\lambda_n = \frac{2L}{n}$, $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

so (non-angular) frequencies $f_n = \frac{c'}{\lambda_n} = \frac{c'n}{2L} \equiv n \delta f$, $\delta f = \frac{c'}{2L}$
 $c' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon \epsilon_0}}$ prop. speed

two modes for each freq., one right-moving, one left

so in freq. range Δf , # allowed modes = $\frac{\Delta f}{\delta f} = \frac{2L}{c'} \Delta f$

Ave. energy in mode of freq. $\omega_n = 2\pi f_n$ is

$$\frac{k\omega_n}{e^{h\omega_n/kT} - 1} = \frac{hf_n}{e^{hf_n/kT} - 1} \quad \text{where } h = 2\pi\hbar$$

If $k_B T \gg hf_n$, classical equipartition $\rightarrow k_B T$ per mode (Taylor)

Justification:

e.g., say it's a computer circuit - don't measure freq. $> 6\text{Hz} \sim 10^{12} \text{s}^{-1}$

$\hbar\omega \sim 10^{-27} \text{eV} \cdot \text{sec} \cdot 10^{12} \text{sec}^{-1} \sim 10^{-15} \text{eV}$

$k_B = 1.4 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{eV/K}$,

so equiv. temp $\sim 10\text{K}$

would have been much lower for a radio-freq. or lower circuit ($\sim \text{MHz}$)

so in freq. range Δf , energy is $\frac{\Delta f}{\delta f} \cdot k_B T = 2\Delta f \frac{L}{c'} k_B T$

Total energy over all freqs. blows up for same reason

as Rayleigh-Jeans - at high freq., we need to use

QM instead of equipartition. Note this means computer designers also getting close to having to use QM.

Rate at which energy goes to left resistor

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\text{energy in line}}{L} \cdot c' = \Delta f k_B T \quad \text{same rate to right}$$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{1/2 modes} \\ \text{going left} \end{array} \right\}$
 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{linear} \\ \text{energy density} \end{array} \right\}$
 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{speed} \\ \text{(group velo.)} \end{array} \right\}$

$Z = R$, so no power reflected.

48

power generated inside left resistor ^{per freq.} = P_0
and sent to line

power absorbed from line by left resistor = $P_0 = \Delta f k_B T$

power absorbed in a resistor = $\langle I^2 \rangle R$

$$= \frac{1}{4R} \langle V^2 \rangle \quad \text{since } I = \frac{V}{R+R} \text{ in this problem}$$

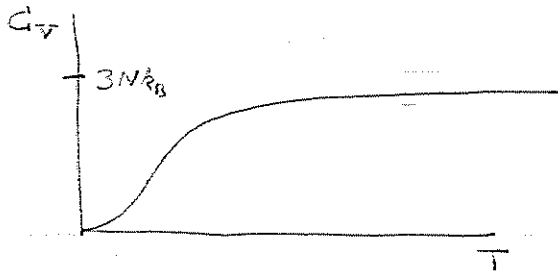
thus $\langle V^2 \rangle = 4R \Delta f k_B T$ Nyquist / Johnson noise

Example of "fluctuation-dissipation theorem"

$\langle V^2 \rangle$ is fluctuation

power in R is dissipation.

Heat Capacity in insulating solids

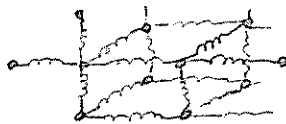


high-temp. $3Nk_B$, "Law of du Long & Petit," is just classical equipartition.

$N = \#$ atoms, not $\#$ molecules...

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 3N \text{ positional deg. of freedom} \\ 3N \text{ momentum} \end{array} \right\} 6N \times \frac{1}{2} k_B T \rightarrow \boxed{U = 3Nk_B T}$$

[better drawing in rough draft]



$$C_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_V = 3Nk_B \quad \text{(as noted before, } C_V \approx C_P \text{ for solids)}$$

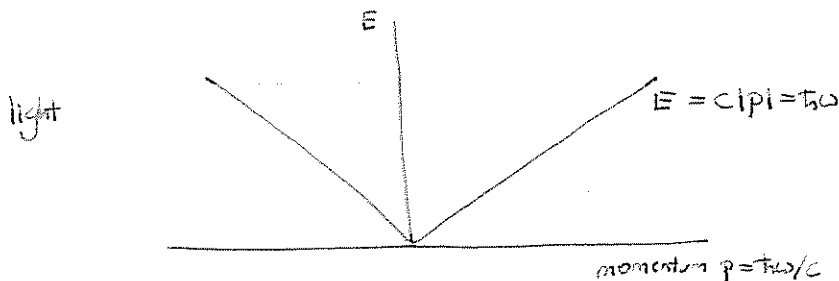
Volumetric specific heat $e_v = \frac{C_V}{V} = 3nk_B$, $n = \frac{N}{V} = \text{number density}$

well established experimentally but fails at low T. How low depends on material - typically 100-300K

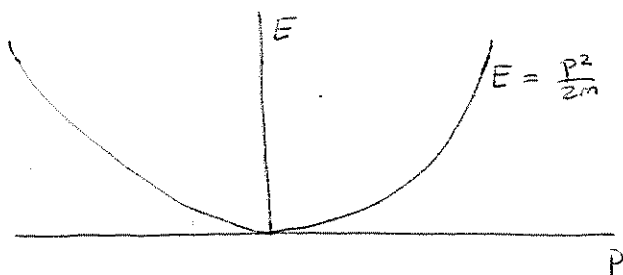
Dispersion curves

group velocity $v_g = \frac{1}{\hbar} \frac{\partial E}{\partial k} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial p}$

Comparison of light & elastic modes of solids.

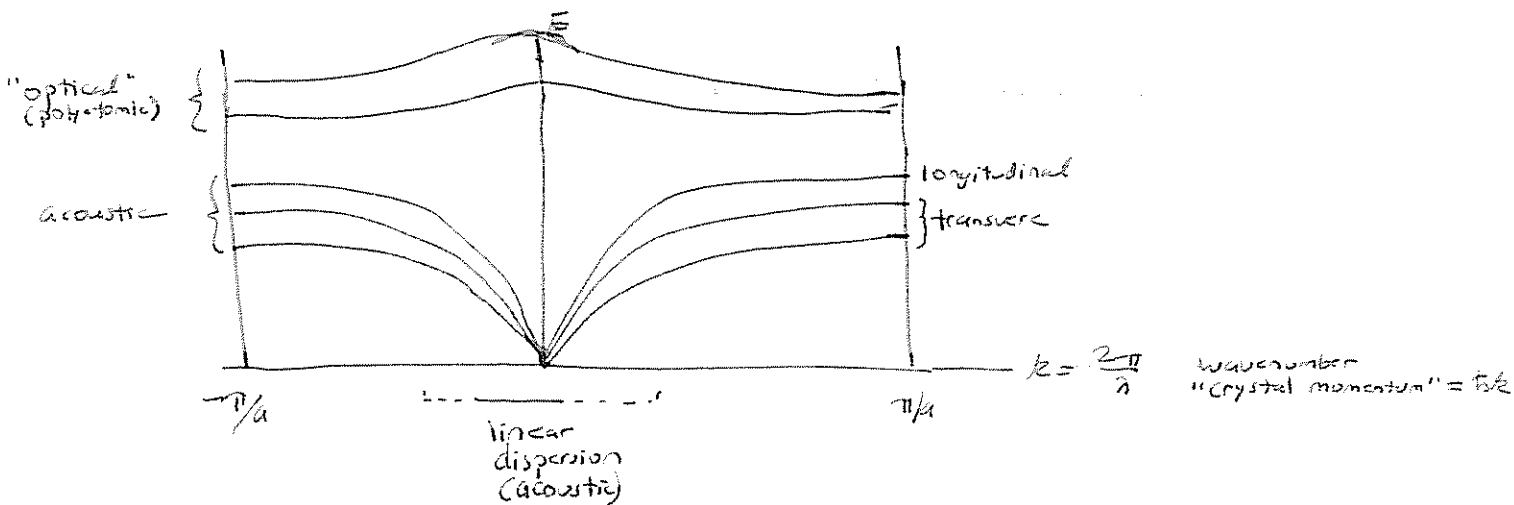


"relativistic dispersion"



for massive free particle (non-relativistic)

result from solid-state physics:



maximum wavenumber because of minimum distance between atoms $\dots \xrightarrow{a} \dots$

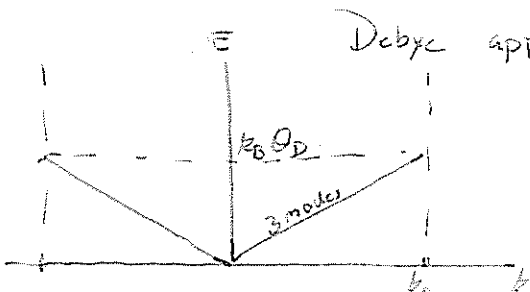
$$|\lambda| \geq 2a$$

$$\Rightarrow |k| \leq \pi/a$$

Debye approx.

Debye approx.:

- 1) ignore "optical" modes
- 2) assume all 3 acoustic branches have equal vels, v
- 3) carry integration exactly as far as needed to get $3N$ modes



2/5/03 Mon.: Nyquist, phonons
 today: heat cap. of insulating solid,
 Chem. pot.
 Fri: Chem. pot., Gibbs

$$\text{Group velocity } v = \frac{1}{\hbar} \frac{\partial E}{\partial k} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial p}$$

Recall photon integral: (P37)

↑ polarization

$$2 \sum_{\vec{n}_1, \vec{n}_2} = \frac{2}{8} \int_0^{\infty} 4\pi n^2 dn$$

now $\omega \propto k$ ~~since~~ we have linear dispersion so that \vec{n} ind./k
 Integral over n is really over k

For Debye phonons, v again ind./k, so we can again replace $\int dk$ with $\int dn$.

Multiply photon result by $3/2$ since there are three polarizations instead of just two,
 and cut off integral:

is cut off by $\frac{3}{8} \int_0^{n_D} 4\pi n^2 dn = 3N$, $n = \frac{L\omega}{\pi v} = \frac{\hbar\omega}{\pi}$ ↳ box side - will depend

$$\frac{1}{2} \pi n_D^3 = 3N$$

$$n_D = (6N/\pi)^{1/3}$$

$$U = \sum \langle \epsilon_n \rangle = \sum \frac{\hbar\omega}{\exp(\hbar\omega/\beta) - 1}, \quad \omega = \frac{\pi v n}{L}$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} \pi \int_0^{\omega_D} \left(\frac{\pi v}{L}\right)^3 \omega^2 d\omega \frac{\hbar\omega}{\exp(\hbar\omega/\beta) - 1}, \quad \omega_D = \frac{n_D \pi v}{L}$$

For low-temp. limit, $k_B T \ll \hbar\omega_D \equiv \hbar\omega_D$, integral is tiny when $\omega \gg \omega_D$,
 so might as well take integral all the way to ∞ . Now it's essentially
 the same as for photon gas (but $3/2$)

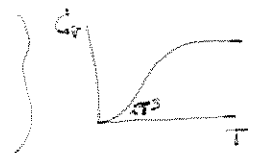
$$U \approx \frac{3}{2} \pi \left(\frac{\pi v}{L}\right)^3 \frac{1}{\beta^4} \frac{1}{15} \left(\frac{\pi^4}{15}\right)$$

algebra

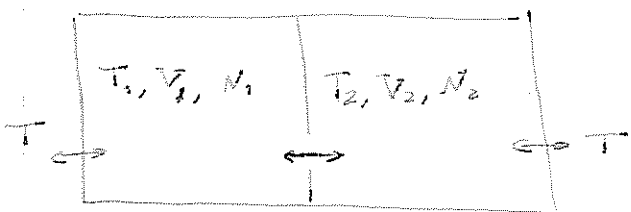
$$= \frac{3\pi^4 N k_B T^4}{5\theta_D^3}$$

low-temp. heat cap $C_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V = \frac{12}{5} \pi^4 N k_B \left(T/\theta_D\right)^3$

high-temp limit recover classical Dulong & Petit $3Nk_B T$



Until now, we've held N (# particles) constant, and two thermodynamic variables determined all the others (e.g. U and V , or \mathcal{V} and T).
 Clearly, adding a particle while holding \mathcal{V}, T constant will change U, P, S , etc., so we need to consider this.



We already know that $T_1 = T_2 = T$ (in equilibrium)

Write Helmholtz free energy: $F_i = F(T, V_i, N_i) = U(T, V_i, N_i) - TS(T, V_i, N_i)$
 for each system ($i=1,2$)
 note: U, S, F all determined by ind. vars. T, V_i, N_i .

Since T_i, V_i fixed,

$$dF_1 = \left(\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial N_1} \right)_{T, V} dN_1$$

$$\text{and } dF_2 = \left(\frac{\partial F_2}{\partial N_2} \right)_{T, V} dN_2 = - \left(\frac{\partial F_2}{\partial N_2} \right)_{T, V} dN_1$$

$$\text{Total change in free energy } dF = \left[\left(\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial N_1} \right)_{T, V} - \left(\frac{\partial F_2}{\partial N_2} \right)_{T, V} \right] dN_1$$

At equilibrium, $dU = dS = 0$, so $dF = 0$. A particle is as likely to move $1 \rightarrow 2$ as $2 \rightarrow 1$, so $[\cdot] = 0$. write

① Chemical potential $\mu(T, V, N) \equiv \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N} \right)_{T, V}$ for each; deduce $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ in equilibrium.

Since particles are not infinitely divisible, maybe in place of ① we should write

$$\mu(T, V, N) = F(T, V, N) - F(T, V, N-1) \equiv \left(\frac{\Delta F}{\Delta N=1} \right)_{T, V}$$

so chem. pot. is free energy difference due to adding one particle.

In general, μ depends on N , so

$$\mu \neq F/N$$

Chapter 8 defines Gibbs free energy $G = U - TS + PV = F + PV$, and we'll see that

②
$$\mu(T, P) = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N} \right)_{T, P} = G(N, T, P) / N$$

Since at constant T & P , μ is ind. of N .
When to use ① and when ②?

- ① useful for boxes of fixed volume;
- ② useful in chem. reactions open to atmosphere held at fixed pressure

Example: ideal gas

$$F(T, V, N) \stackrel{\text{ch. 3}}{=} -k_B T \left[N \ln Z_1 - \ln N! \right] \quad \begin{matrix} Z_1 = \text{part. func. of particle} \\ \approx n_Q V \end{matrix}$$

$$F(T, V, N-1) = -k_B T \left[(N-1) \ln Z_1 - \ln(N-1)! \right] - \ln N! + \ln N$$

subtract
$$\mu(T, V, N) = k_B T \ln \left(\frac{N}{n_Q V} \right) = k_B T \ln(n/n_Q), \quad n = \frac{N}{V} \text{ number density}$$

- intensive (like n, T, P)
- at fixed volume, increases, but nonlinearly, with N

$$n_Q = \left(\frac{m k_B T}{2\pi \hbar^2} \right)^{3/2}$$

If $\mu_2 > \mu_1$, particles will flow - in which direction?



Since $n_2 > n_1$, more likely 2 → 1 than reverse

Call this source of chem. pot. "internal." (μ^{int})
We can counteract it w/ an "external" potential.

For example, for particles all with charge e , apply an electric potential φ to side 1, zero to side 2. This raises energy of ea. particle in system 1 by $e\varphi$ but doesn't change entropy.

Now $F_1 = F_1^{old} + N_1 e\varphi$

$$\mu_1^{tot} = \left(\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial N_1} \right)_{T, V} = \left(\frac{\partial F_1^{old}}{\partial N_1} \right)_{T, V} + e\varphi = \mu_1^{int} + e\varphi$$

If we set $e\psi = \mu_2^{\text{int}} - \mu_1^{\text{int}}$, then $\mu_1^{\text{tot}} = \mu_2^{\text{tot}}$, and we've restored equilibrium.

K&K give several examples:

1. pressure as func. of height h in atmosphere

$$P(h) = P(0) e^{-h/h_c} \quad h_c \approx 8.5 \text{ km}$$

pretend isothermal β equilibrium (1)

β ideal gas
 β all N_2

$$\mu^{\text{int}} = k_B T \ln(n(h)/n_0) \quad (\text{ideal gas})$$

$$\mu^{\text{ext}} = Mgh \quad (M \approx M_{N_2})$$

$$\mu(h) = \mu^{\text{int}} + \mu^{\text{ext}} \quad \text{should be ind. of height}$$

$$0 = \frac{d\mu}{dh} = \frac{k_B T / n_0}{n/n_0} \frac{dn}{dh} + Mg = \frac{k_B T}{n} \frac{dn}{dh} + Mg$$

$$\frac{dn}{dh} = -\frac{Mg}{k_B T} n$$

$$\text{solution: } n = e^{-h/h_c} n(0) \quad \text{w/ } h_c = \frac{k_B T}{Mg}$$

Since $P = \frac{N k_B T}{V} = n k_B T$, $P \propto n$, and

$$P(h) = P(0) e^{-h/h_c}$$

Other examples in text:

- mobile particles in B field
- Pb-acid battery

4/7/03 wed.: chemical pot.
atmospheric pressure

today: generalize two old results to case $dU \neq 0$

$$dU = TdS - PdV \quad (1^{\text{st}} \text{ law})$$

and prob. $p(\epsilon) = \frac{e^{-\beta E_\epsilon}}{\Xi}$

1st excursion into Differential Land

2nd back to Ensembleville

next week: Fermi & Bose

Corrections: ① handout ② $G(N,T,P) = N\mu(T,P)$

Extend thermodynamic identity.

Consider U a function of S , V , and N

Justify: particles in a box =
E defined as that example
together all the states of cons. U

$$\textcircled{1} \quad dU = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S}\right)_{V,N}}_T dS + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_{S,N}}_{-P} dV + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N}\right)_{S,V} dN$$

What is $\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N}\right)_{S,V}$?

Try $F = F(T,V,N) = U - TS$

$$dF = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T}\right)_{V,N}}_{-S} dT + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}\right)_{T,N}}_{-P} dV + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{T,V}}_{\mu} dN$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad = -SdT - PdV + \mu dN$$

but $dF \stackrel{\text{also}}{=} dU - TdS - SdT$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad = \cancel{TdS} - PdV + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N}\right)_{S,V} dN - \cancel{TdS} - SdT$$

Equate ② and ③:

$$-SdT - PdV + \mu dN = -PdV + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N}\right)_{S,V} dN - SdT$$

$$\text{so } \boxed{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N}\right)_{S,V} = \mu}$$

answers K&K problem 5.11

and we arrive at
extended thermodynamic
identity

$$\boxed{dU = TdS - PdV + \mu dN} + \mu_2 dN_2 + \mu_3 dN_3 + \dots \quad \text{if we have several species}$$

Yet another expression for μ :

Consider S as a func. of U, V, N . Then

$$dS = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_{V,N}}_{1/T} dU + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_{U,N}}_{\text{below}} dV + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N}\right)_{U,V}}_{\text{below}} dN$$

[From 1st T. ident.]

What is $\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_{U,N}$?

I ~~know~~ have an easier way to answer this, but then I'd have no excuse to prove a useful general formula, so...

[Immediate from 1st ident.]

For this section, keep N fixed implicitly. S, V, U then interdependent:

$$\begin{aligned} S &= S(U, V) \\ V &= V(S, U) \\ U &= U(S, V) \end{aligned}$$

general identity: $\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y = -1$
for x, y, z interrelated

derive: $z = z(x, y)$, so $dz = \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y dx + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)_x dy$

hold z constant (i.e. $dz=0$): then

$$\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y dx|_z = -\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)_x dy|_z, \text{ or}$$

$$\boxed{\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x = -1}$$

Alternative derivation not using "bare" differentials ~~begin with facts~~

not copy 2005

~~this $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{dy}{dz} = \frac{dz}{dx} = 0$ since any two vars. are independent~~

write $\frac{dx}{dy} = 1$

$$1 = \frac{dx}{dy} = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y \frac{dz}{dy} + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z$$

apply chain rule twice

$$= 1 + \left[\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x \right] \frac{dz}{dy} \text{ etc.}$$

$x \rightarrow U$
 $y \rightarrow V$
 $z \rightarrow S$

$$\underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_S}_{-P} \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial S}\right)_U}_{1/T} \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_V = -1$$

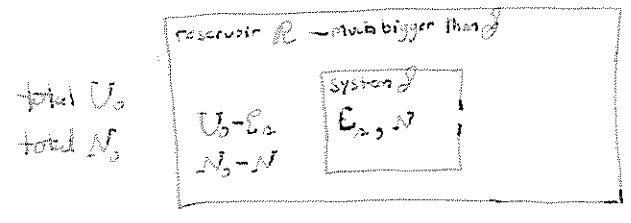
(with constant N , too)

So $\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_U = P/T$

Now for $\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N}\right)_{U,V}$. I'll do this one the easy way:

$\times T \rightarrow dS = \frac{1}{T} dU + \frac{P}{T} dV + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N}\right)_{U,V} dN$
 $dU = TdS - PdV - T\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N}\right)_{U,V} dN$
 so $\boxed{-T\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N}\right)_{U,V} = \mu}$

Grand-Canonical (Gibbs) ensemble



V fixed for this derivation.

ensemble: many systems $\mathcal{S}_1 = (s_1, N_1)$,
 $\mathcal{S}_2 = (s_2, N_2), \dots$
[state # particles]

What is prob. $p(A, N)$ that the system is in state (A, N) ?

Follow same deriv'n used for canonical ensemble: $\frac{q}{\Omega} = \frac{q}{\Omega} \cdot 1$

$P \propto \frac{q}{\Omega} (U_0 - E_2, N_0 - N) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{k_B} S(U_0 - E_2, N_0 - N)\right)$ S entropy / k_B

two states, (A_1, N_1) and (A_2, N_2) :

$\frac{P(A_1, N_1)}{P(A_2, N_2)} = \exp\left(\frac{1}{k_B} [S(U_0 - E_1, N_0 - N_1) - S(U_0 - E_2, N_0 - N_2)]\right)$
 ΔS

$\mathcal{S} \ll R$, so $\frac{|N_1 - N_2|}{N_0} \ll 1, \frac{|E_1 - E_2|}{U_0} \ll 1$

so $\Delta S = - (E_1 - E_2) \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U_0}\right)_{U_0}}_{1/T} - (N_1 - N_2) \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N_0}\right)_{U_0}}_{-\mu/T}$

5)

and

$$\frac{P(N_1, N_2)}{P(N_1, N_2)} = \frac{\exp[N_1 \mu \beta - N_2 \mu \beta - E_1 \beta + E_2 \beta]}{\exp[(N_1 \mu - E_1) \beta]} = \frac{\exp[(N_1 \mu - E_1) \beta]}{\exp[(N_2 \mu - E_2) \beta]}$$

and

$$P(N, N) = \frac{\exp[(N \mu - E) \beta]}{\mathcal{Z}}$$

where $\mathcal{Z} = \sum_{N, N} \exp[(N \mu - E_{N, N}) \beta]$

"Grand partition function"
or "Gibbs Sum"

Note: $E_{N, N}$ depends on N / state n
in non-interacting system, $E_{N, N} = N \epsilon_n$

4/12

Some authors use other letters, e.g. script \mathcal{Q} or \mathcal{I}

Useful expression for thermal ave. particle #

$$\langle N \rangle = \frac{\sum_{N, N} N e^{-(E_{N, N} - \mu N) \beta}}{\mathcal{Z}}$$

4/12

Recall trick $U = \langle E_2 \rangle = \frac{\sum_n E_n e^{-E_n \beta}}{\sum_n e^{-E_n \beta}} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} (\ln \mathcal{Z})$
or $= -k_B T^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial T} (\ln \mathcal{Z})$ eq 3

We can do something similar for $\langle N \rangle$.

$$\langle N \rangle = \boxed{k_B T \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \ln \mathcal{Z}}$$

μ is "conjugate" to N

Useful for fixing $N = \langle N \rangle$ to be "right" number

example: non-interacting e's in a metal

If n labels states (incl. spin), each n can have occupancy # 0 or 1 only (Fermionic).

53

prob. of occup. of a one- e^- state (incl. spin), a , w/ energy E_a is

$$P_a = \frac{e^{-(E_a - \mu)\beta}}{\mathcal{Z}_a}$$

$$\text{where } \mathcal{Z}_a = 1 + e^{-(E_a - \mu)\beta}, \quad \therefore P_a = \frac{e^{-(E_a - \mu)\beta}}{1 + e^{-(E_a - \mu)\beta}} = \frac{1}{e^{(E_a - \mu)\beta} + 1}$$

$$N = \langle N \rangle = \int da \frac{1}{e^{(E_a - \mu)\beta} + 1}$$

will include geometrical factor - "density of states" dE

[Go through zero-temp. occup'n.]

One then sets μ such that N will be right # (determined by valency).

$$\text{Result from FS: } \mu = \mu(T=0) - (\text{const.}) \left(\frac{k_B T}{E_F} \right)^2 + \mathcal{O} \left(\frac{k_B T}{E_F} \right)^4$$

E_F = Fermi energy

typically $\sim k_B \cdot 10000 \text{ K}$

2/1/03

2/10/03

Fri.: Gibbs

today: ~~Semi-classical~~ Fermi-Dirac

Bose-Einstein
Doltzmann

Wed.: Ideal classical gas

non-interacting Gibbs sum $\mathcal{Z} = \sum_{N, N} e^{-(E_N - \mu N)\beta} \equiv \sum_{N, N} \lambda^N e^{-E_N \beta}$

$\lambda = e^{\mu\beta}$ called "fugacity" (KVK call it "absolute activity" but I haven't seen this term elsewhere)
↳ fugacity is like γ (activity) (pressure, density, volume)

Recall that for an ideal gas

$$\mu = k_B T \ln(n/n_Q), \quad n = \frac{N}{V}, \quad n_Q = \text{quantum concentration}$$

$$\text{so } \lambda = n/n_Q \quad (\text{ideal gas})$$

Example: K&K prob. 5.4 read (sup' + extrapolate!)

Set $\Delta\mu = V_f$, q the fundamental charge

Taking $\mu = k_B T \ln(n/n_0)$ as for ideal gas (this is just an estimate), we have

$$\Delta\mu = \mu_{in} - \mu_{out} = k_B T \ln\left(\frac{n_{in}}{n_{out}}\right) = k_B T \ln(10^4)$$

Useful # to remember: $k_B 300K \approx \frac{1}{40} eV$

$$\text{so } \Delta\mu \approx \frac{1}{10} \ln(10) eV \approx 0.23 eV = V_f$$

$$\text{or } \boxed{V = 0.23 \text{ volts}}$$

Example: K&K problem 5.8 read

3 levels:

<u>State</u>	<u>energy</u>
vacant	0
O_2	ϵ_A
CO	ϵ_B ($< \epsilon_A$)

equilib:

$$\mu_{O_2} \text{ of adsorbed } O_2 = \mu \text{ of gas-phase } O_2$$

$$\mu_{CO} \text{ of adsorbed CO} = \mu \text{ of " " CO}$$

$$\text{fugacity } \lambda_{O_2} = 1 \cdot 10^{-5} = e^{\mu_{O_2} \beta}$$

$$\text{fugacity } \lambda_{CO} = 1 \cdot 10^{-3}$$

$$T = 37^\circ C = 310K$$

Ignore internal degrees of freedom

a) Gibbs sum for one site (no CO) is

$$\mathcal{Z} = e^0 + \lambda_{O_2} e^{-\beta \epsilon_A} = 1 + \lambda_{O_2} e^{-\beta \epsilon_A}$$

$$\text{prob. occupied} = \frac{\lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_A}}{\mathcal{Z}} \equiv 0.9 \equiv \alpha \quad (\lambda = \lambda_{O_2})$$

$$e^{-\beta \epsilon_A} (\lambda - \alpha \lambda) = \alpha$$

$$e^{-\beta \epsilon_A} = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda(1-\alpha)} = \frac{0.9}{10^{-5} \cdot 0.1} = 9 \cdot 10^5$$

$$E_1 = -k_B T \ln(9 \cdot 10^5) = -\frac{k_B}{V} \ln(9 \cdot 10^5) \quad 310K \quad \ln(9 \cdot 10^5) = \boxed{-0.37 eV}$$

b) Introduce CO @ 1% the concentration of O₂ ($\lambda_{CO} = 10^{-7}$) (not exactly 1%, because O₂ depends on moles)

We're told that now only 10% of sites have absorbed O₂. What is CO binding energy, E_B ?

$$Z = 1 + \lambda_{O_2} e^{-\beta E_A} + \lambda_{CO} e^{-\beta E_B} = 1 + \overbrace{9}^{\text{since } e^{-\beta E_A} = 9 \cdot 10^5 \cdot \lambda_{O_2}} + \lambda_{CO} e^{-\beta E_B}$$

$$\text{prob. occ. by } O_2 = \frac{\lambda_{O_2} e^{-\beta E_A}}{Z} = \frac{9}{Z} = 0.1$$

$$Z = 90, \text{ or } \lambda_{CO} e^{-\beta E_B} = 80$$

$$E_B = -k_B T \ln\left(\frac{80}{\lambda_{CO}}\right) = -0.268 eV \ln(8 \cdot 10^8) = \boxed{-0.55 eV}$$

CO much more tightly bound than O₂:

$$\frac{-(E_B - E_A)}{k_B T} = \frac{0.18 eV}{0.027 eV} \approx 6.7 \quad \text{so it's very hard @ body temp. to dislodge a CO}$$

"Quantum Statistics"

caveat: isotropy

Q. Mech: every particle has an intrinsic ang. mom. that is either an integer multiple (0 out of \hbar) or a half-integer multiple (e.g., photon has spin 1, electron spin $1/2$).

caveat: spin in addition with other angular momentum

Spin-Statistics thm. (relativistic q. field theory):

integer spin: Boson $\Psi(2,1) = \Psi(1,2)$ (#s are labels)
 half-integer: Fermion $\Psi(2,1) = -\Psi(1,2)$

consequence for Fermions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

However,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

because labels are illusory

21.01

So double (or higher) occupancies are **FORBIDDEN**.

BOSE case. Like photons/phonons, but particle number (in general) conserved \rightarrow need μ .

$$\lambda = e^{\mu\beta}$$

For one state ("orbital"),
$$Z = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{-(N\epsilon - \mu N)\beta} = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} (\lambda e^{-\epsilon\beta})^N = \frac{1}{1 - \lambda e^{-\epsilon\beta}}$$

occupation function:
~~prob. for~~ occup. # for
 a single state of energy ϵ :

assumes
 non-interacting
 (ideal gas)

provided $\epsilon > \mu$
 so $\lambda e^{-\epsilon\beta} < 1$

$$f(\epsilon) = \langle N(\epsilon) \rangle = \lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \ln Z \quad \left(= \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^N N e^{-\epsilon N \beta}}{Z} \right)$$

$$= -\lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \ln(1 - \lambda e^{-\epsilon\beta})$$

$$= \frac{\lambda e^{-\epsilon\beta}}{1 - \lambda e^{-\epsilon\beta}} = \frac{1}{\lambda^{-1} e^{\epsilon\beta} - 1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon - \mu)\beta} - 1}$$

Bose-Einstein distribution

Interpretation: for a level of energy ϵ , what is the expected occupation number?

FERMI case

Fibbs sum
$$Z = 1 + \lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon}$$

 for one
 state ("orbital")

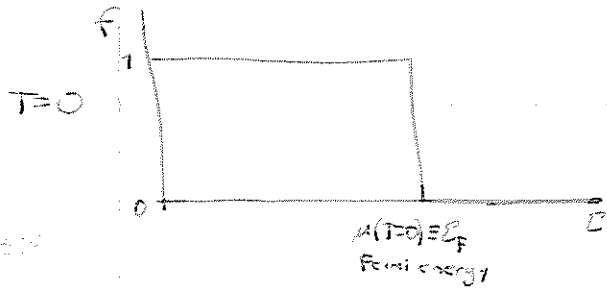
occupation func.

$$f(\epsilon) = \langle N(\epsilon) \rangle = \frac{\lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon}}{1 + \lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon}} = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon - \mu)\beta} + 1} \quad \text{Fermi-Dirac distribution}$$

Interp.: we have many levels, each at diff. energy ϵ . $f(\epsilon)$ tells the prob each is occupied.

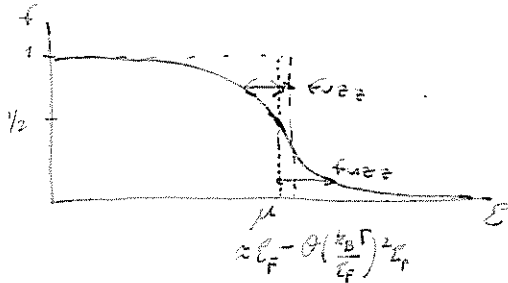
$$\text{At } T=0, \quad \beta = \infty, \quad \text{so } f(\epsilon) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{0+1} = 1 & \epsilon < \mu(T=0) \quad \text{definitely occupied} \\ \frac{1}{\infty+1} = 0 & \epsilon > \mu(T=0) \quad \text{definitely unoccupied} \end{cases}$$

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density of states - geometrical factor
 $\int_0^{E_F} f(E) g(E) dE = N$

For $T > 0$, μ is a function of T as noted on Friday



$$\int_0^{\infty} f(E) g(E) dE = N$$

How big is the fuzz? Say $E > \mu$.

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} \left[\frac{(E-\mu)\beta}{k_B T} \right]^j} = 1$$

[don't do Taylor expansion just now - important!]

For the denom. not to blow up (so $f > 0$), we need

$$\frac{(E-\mu)\beta}{k_B T} \ll 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boxed{f_{fuzz} \sim k_B T} \quad (\text{approx.})$$

Calc. E_F for a typical metal - done in Ch. 7 $\rightarrow \sim 100000K$, so $\sim 100000K$
 $f_{fuzz} \ll E_F$ at room temp.

2/10/03
2/11/04

replaced
next page
Classical - much harder! book doesn't derive

limit that double occup. is small of either f_{FD} or f_{BE}

$$\text{is } \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)\beta} \pm 1} = \boxed{\lambda e^{-\epsilon/\beta} \equiv f_{MB}(\epsilon)}$$

Let $x = (E-\mu)\beta$ (dimensionless). Plot

$$f_{FD}(x) = \frac{1}{e^x + 1}, \quad f_{BE}(x) = \frac{1}{e^x - 1}, \quad f_{MB}(x) = e^{-x}$$

point out classical regime

2/12/03 Mon.:

$$f_{FD}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon-\mu)\beta} + 1}$$

$$f_{BE}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon-\mu)\beta} - 1}$$

today:

$$f_{MB}(\epsilon);$$

internal degrees of freedom

occupation
funcs.
for a single
state at energy ϵ

Fri: entropy of mixing
problems

(58)

Classical - not done in the book

perhaps because it's not "natural" in the classical picture to talk of the occupation of a state

For state ϵ ,

$$Z = \sum_{N_B} \frac{1}{N_B!} e^{-(\epsilon-\mu)N_B/\beta} = \sum_{N_B} \frac{1}{N_B!} (\lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon})^{N_B} = \exp(\lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon})$$

\uparrow prevent Gibbs paradox (not really legitimate)
 \uparrow ideal gas
 \uparrow fugacity

$$\langle N_B \rangle = -\frac{1}{\beta Z} \left(\frac{\partial Z}{\partial \epsilon} \right)_{\mu, T}$$

\uparrow emphasize - just one state

From [Simplify: $Z = \exp(\lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon})$]

$$\text{so } \langle N_B \rangle = -\frac{1}{\beta \exp(\lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon})} \lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon} (-\beta) \exp(\lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon})$$

$$= \lambda e^{-\beta\epsilon} = \boxed{e^{-(\epsilon-\mu)/\beta}} \equiv f_{MB}(T, \mu)$$

near μ
maximize

$$\alpha = (\epsilon-\mu)\beta$$

is approx/good.

$$f_{FD}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha} + 1}$$

etc

Somewhat misleading:
 μ is different
with three cases
for the same α .

Let $\alpha = e^{(\epsilon-\mu)\beta}$. Then

$$f_{FD}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\alpha + 1}$$

$$f_{BE}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\alpha - 1}$$

$$f_{MB}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{\alpha + 0}$$

$$f_{FD} \approx f_{BE} \approx f_{MB} \text{ when } \alpha \gg 1 \rightarrow \text{occupancy small}$$

Now show graph. Comment on the $\frac{1}{N!}$.
classical is valid only when $f_{MB} \ll 1$; i.e.,
only $N=0, 1$ contribute significantly, so
 $\frac{1}{N!} \approx 1$ anyway.

Deduce behavior of IDEAL monatomic classical gas from f_{MB}
- we previously derived most of these relations from the canonical ens.

1. Using μ as knob to ensure $\langle N \rangle = \text{true } \neq N_0$:

$$N_0 = \langle N \rangle = \sum_{\text{states}} f_{NB}(\Sigma_2) = \lambda \sum_{\Sigma} e^{-\beta \Sigma_2} = \lambda Z_1, \quad \text{where } Z_1 = n_Q V \quad (\text{ch. 3})$$

$$\text{So } \lambda = \frac{N_0}{Z_1} = \frac{N_0}{n_Q V} = \frac{n}{n_Q} \quad (\text{ideal gas})$$

$$\text{taking log: } \boxed{\mu = k_B T \ln(n/n_Q)} \quad \text{previously derived in ch. 5.}$$

2. Helmholtz free energy

$$\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{T,V} = \mu$$

$$F(N, T, V) = \int_0^N dN' \mu(N', T, V) = k_B T \left[N \ln \frac{1}{n_Q V} + \int_0^N dN' \ln N' \right] \quad \text{from entropy } \mu = k_B T \ln(n/n_Q)$$

$$= k_B T \left[N \ln \frac{1}{n_Q V} + N \ln N - N - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x \ln x) \right]$$

by L'Hôpital

$$= N k_B T \left[\ln(n/n_Q) - 1 \right] \quad \text{agrees w/ ch. 3}$$

3. pressure (exactly as in ch. 3): $P = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}\right)_{T,N} \stackrel{n=N/V}{=} \frac{k_B T V^{-2} N/2}{(n/n_Q) n_Q} = \frac{N k_B T}{V}$

$$\text{or } \boxed{PV = N k_B T}$$

4. entropy $S = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T}\right)_{V,N} = -N k_B \left[\ln\left(\frac{n}{n_Q}\right) - 1 \right] + \frac{N k_B T n_Q}{n} \left(\frac{dn_Q}{dT}\right) n_Q^{-2} n$

$$n_Q = \left(\frac{M k_B T}{2\pi \hbar^2}\right)^{3/2}, \quad \text{so } \frac{dn_Q}{dT} = \frac{3}{2} n_Q \frac{1}{T}$$

$$S = -N k_B \left[\ln\left(\frac{n}{n_Q}\right) - 1 \right] + N k_B T n_Q \frac{3}{2} \frac{n_Q}{T} n_Q^{-2} n$$

$$= -N k_B \left[\ln\left(\frac{n}{n_Q}\right) - 1 - \frac{3}{2} \right] = \boxed{N k_B \left[\ln\left(\frac{n_Q}{n}\right) + 5/2 \right]} \quad \text{Sackur-Tetrode}$$

5. $U = F + TS = N k_B T \left[\ln(n/n_Q) - 1 + \ln(n_Q/n) + 5/2 \right] = \boxed{\frac{3}{2} N k_B T}$
 equipartition (discuss)

(60)

$$6. C_V = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T} \right)_{V, N} = \frac{Nk_B T}{n_B/n} \frac{1}{n} \frac{dn_B}{dT} = \boxed{\frac{3}{2} Nk_B} \quad \text{equipartition}$$

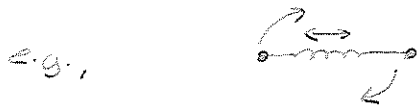
(or just $\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_{V, N}$)

$$7. C_P = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_{P, N} + P \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_{P, N} \quad (\text{notes, p31, 1/27/03})$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} Nk_B + P \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial T} \right)_{P, N} \left(\frac{Nk_B T}{P} \right) = \frac{3}{2} Nk_B + Nk_B = \boxed{\frac{5}{2} Nk_B}$$

ratio $\frac{C_P}{C_V} \equiv \gamma = \frac{5}{3}$ for ideal monatomic gas
generally, > 1 .

How do we revise these results if there are internal degrees of freedom?



From before, for one "orbital" of energy ϵ ,

$$Z = \sum_N \frac{1}{N!} (\lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon})^N \quad (\text{no internal deg. of freedom})$$

Now we need to sum over internal states as well: $\epsilon \rightarrow \epsilon + \epsilon_i^{\text{int}}$

$$Z = \sum_N \sum_i \frac{1}{N!} (\lambda e^{-\beta[\epsilon + \epsilon_i^{\text{int}]}})^N = \sum_N \frac{1}{N!} (\lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon} Z_{\text{int}})^N$$

$$\text{where } Z_{\text{int}} = \sum_i e^{-\beta \epsilon_i^{\text{int}}}$$

$$= \exp(\lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon} Z_{\text{int}})$$

occupation number for state " ϵ " including all internal states:

$$f_{MB}(\epsilon) = \langle N_\epsilon \rangle = -\frac{1}{\beta Z} \left(\frac{\partial Z}{\partial \epsilon} \right)_{P, T} = Z_{\text{int}} e^{-(\epsilon + \epsilon_i^{\text{int}})\beta} = Z_{\text{int}} \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon}$$

(6)

Sum over all states $N = \sum_i f_{MB}(e) = Z_{int} \lambda \sum_{\{s, \dots\}} e^{-\epsilon_B}$
 $n_Q V = \text{just } Z_1$

so $\lambda = \frac{n}{n_Q Z_{int}} = e^{\mu/k_B T}$

$\mu = k_B T [\ln(n/n_Q) - \ln Z_{int}]$ result w/o internal freedom

$F = \int_0^N dN' \mu(N', T, V) = F_0 + F_{int} = F_0 - N k_B T \ln Z_{int}$

$S = - \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T} \right)_{V, N} = S_0 - \left(\frac{\partial F_{int}}{\partial T} \right)_{V, N}$ (need model of F_{int} to evaluate further)

2/17/03

$U_{int} = N \frac{\sum_i \epsilon_i^{int} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i^{int}}}{Z_{int}} = N \langle U_{int}^{(1)} \rangle$

2/14/03 Wed.: $f_1 \{FD, BE, MB\}$

Classical ideal gas \leftarrow
 Thermodynamic quantities
 internal degrees of freedom $Z_{int} = \sum_i e^{-\beta \epsilon_i^{int}}$

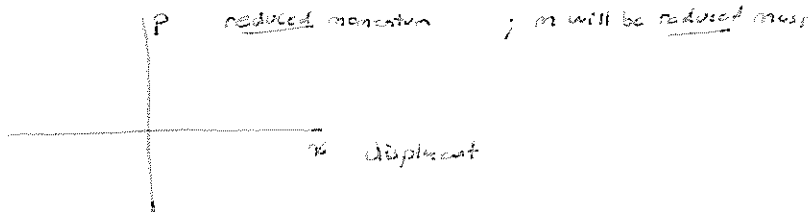
today: finish internal deg.
 reversible vs. irreversible
 examples

Mon.: metals
 neutron stars

model just the U_{int} from $\text{---} \text{---} \text{---}$ diatomic spring (not pitch or roll)

classical 2D phase space:

$\epsilon^{int} = \frac{1}{2} k x^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{p^2}{m}$



In canonical ensemble all phase space is accessible with Boltzmann probability.

$Z_{int} = \alpha \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2} k x^2 \beta} dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2} p^2 / m \beta} dp$

α : prop. constant of units $\frac{1}{cm} \cdot \frac{1}{g \text{ cm/s}} = \frac{1}{erg \cdot s}$...

$Z_{int} = \alpha \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{k\beta}} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi m}{\beta}} = \alpha \frac{2\pi}{\beta} \sqrt{\frac{m}{k}}$

$$\langle U_{int}^{(n)} \rangle = - \frac{1}{Z_{int}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} Z_{int} = \beta \cdot \rho^2 = k_B T \quad \text{for spring} \quad \alpha \text{ drops out}$$

(2 degrees of freedom)

$\frac{1}{2} k_B T$ for each of pitch and ~~roll~~ yaw (nothing for roll ~~spring~~), so

$$U_{translational} = N k_B T \left(\underbrace{\frac{3}{2}}_{3 \text{ translational}} + \underbrace{\frac{2}{2}}_{\text{spring}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}}_{\text{pitch}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}}_{\text{yaw}} \right) = \frac{7}{2} N k_B T$$

$$\text{So } C_V = \frac{7}{2} N k_B$$

NOT IN AGREEMENT with expt. except at high T -

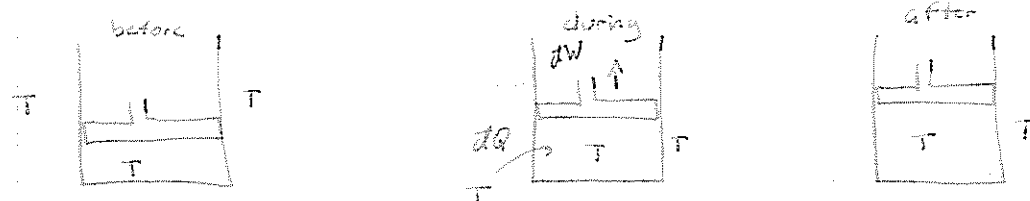
e.g. fig 3.4 p 78

vibrations "frozen out" (y. mech) - just means $\alpha \int dx \int dp$ should instead have been \sum over discrete states (quantum harmonic osc.)

contrast several different expansion processes for monatomic ideal gas. In each case, V_i = initial volume, V_f = final vol, N = fixed.
 $= 2V_i$

1. Reversible - isothermal

space above piston is vacuum; initially add down (0.1) w/ weight; let it go up then stop it



Pressure

$$P_i = \frac{N k_B T}{V_i}$$

$$P_f = \frac{N k_B T}{V_f}$$

$$\text{so } \frac{P_f}{P_i} = \frac{V_i}{V_f} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{for this example}$$

To find entropy change, use Sackur-Tetrode

$$S_i = N k_B \left[\ln \left(\frac{n_B}{n_i} \right) + \frac{5}{2} \right]$$

$$S_f = N k_B \left[\ln \left(\frac{n_B}{n_f} \right) + \frac{5}{2} \right]$$

concentration $n = \frac{N}{V}$, so $n_f = \frac{1}{2} n_i$.

$$\text{change } \Delta S = S_f - S_i = N k_B \ln \left(\frac{n_i}{n_f} \right) = N k_B \ln 2 > 0$$

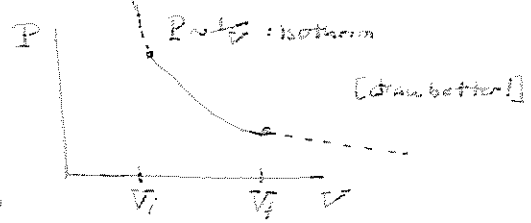
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Work done by gas on piston = $\int_{V_i}^{V_f} P(V) dV = \int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{Nk_B T}{V} dV = Nk_B T \ln\left(\frac{V_f}{V_i}\right) = Nk_B T \ln 2$

Change in internal energy $\Delta U = 0$ because $U_f = U_i = \frac{3}{2} Nk_B T$

Since gas lost internal energy through mechanical work, an equivalent amount of heat must have flowed in from the reservoir: $\Delta Q = Nk_B T \ln 2$.

review P-V diagram (useful for reversible processes only)



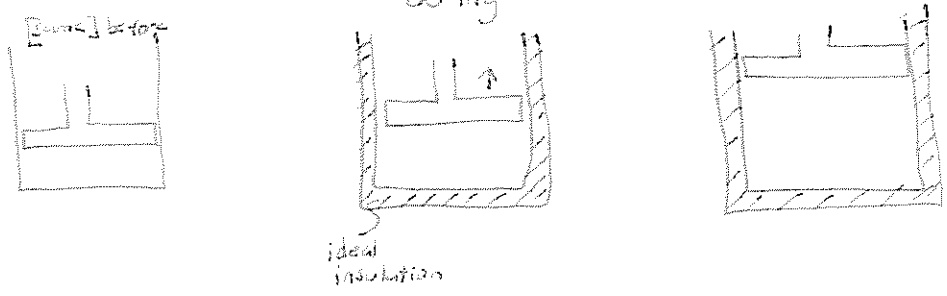
Q.: How can the process be reversible if entropy increases?

A.: Entropy change in reservoir is $-\Delta S$, so total entropy change is zero.

$\Delta Q = T \Delta S$.

2.307

2. Reversible - adiabatic



entropy change $\Delta S = 0$ by definition

Sadiu - Tetroda $S(V, T) = Nk_B \left[\ln\left(\frac{NqV}{N}\right) + \frac{5}{2} \right] = Nk_B \left[\ln(T^{3/2} V) + \text{const.} \right]$

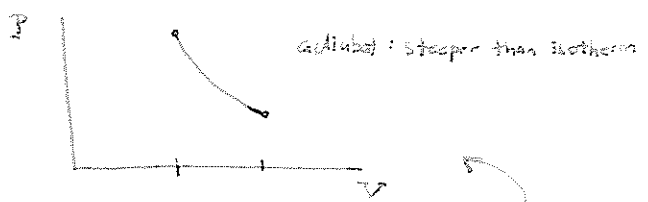
So if $S = \text{const.}$, $T^{3/2} V = \text{const.}$

Q. In HW, you had instead $T^3 V = \text{const.}$ for an adiabatic process.

What was different? A.: photon gas is ideal but not classical.

①

$\frac{P_i V_i}{T_i} = \frac{P_f V_f}{T_f}$



substitute $T = \alpha V^{-2/3}$ to get PV reln: $P_i V_i^{5/3} = P_f V_f^{5/3}$, i.e., $P \propto V^{-5/3}$

Change in temp: from (3), $\frac{T_f}{T_i} = \frac{P_f V_f}{P_i V_i} = \frac{V_f^{-5/3} V_f}{V_i^{-5/3} V_i} = \left(\frac{V_f}{V_i}\right)^{-2/3} = 2^{-2/3} < 1$
 so it cools

Change in internal energy

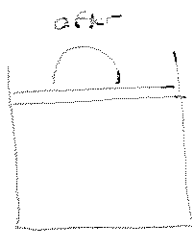
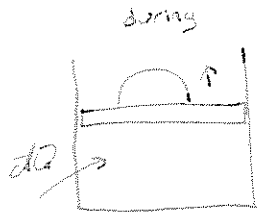
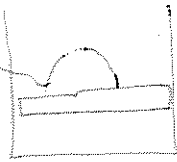
$\Delta U = U_f - U_i = \frac{3}{2} N k_B (T_f - T_i) < 0$ loses energy

work done by gas on piston = $\int_{V_i}^{V_f} P dV = \int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{N k_B T(V)}{V} dV$

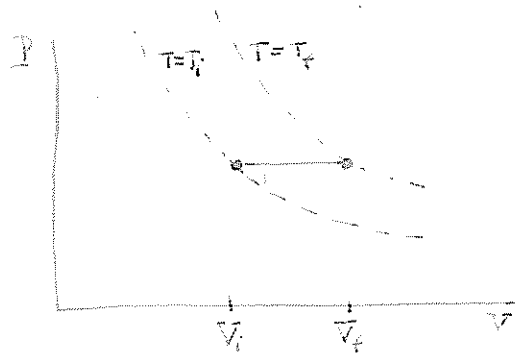
$T(V) = A V^{-2/3}$
 $= N k_B \alpha \int_{V_i}^{V_f} V^{-5/3} dV = -\frac{3}{2} N k_B \alpha (V_f^{-2/3} - V_i^{-2/3}) = -\frac{3}{2} N k_B (T_f - T_i) > 0$
 Exactly equal to change in internal energy

3. reversible - isobaric

explain how mass is used to hold P fixed.



reservoir T increases slowly perhaps by means of the compression of another ideal gas



work done by gas on piston = $P(V_f - V_i)$

40/104

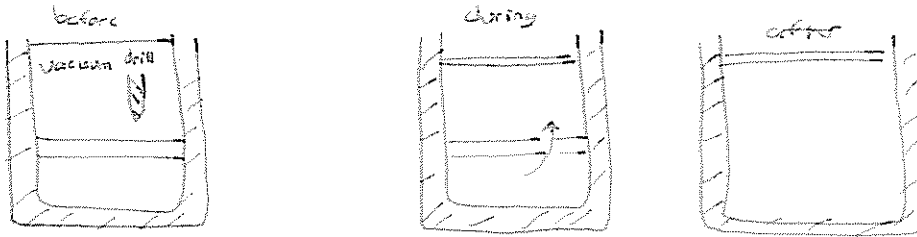
$P = \text{const.} = \frac{N k_B T_i}{V_i} = \frac{N k_B T_f}{V_f}$

so $\frac{T_f}{T_i} = \frac{V_i}{V_f} = 2$ for this example

change in internal energy $\Delta U = U_f - U_i = \frac{3}{2} N k_B (T_f - T_i) > 0$

65

Contrast sudden expansion:



Cor could pull up piston really fast - no work either way)

$\Delta U = 0$ because there's no pathway for work to go

Since $U_f = U_i = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T$: (no change in temperature (reminder: for ideal gas))

2018

Increase in entropy from Sackur-Tetrode:

$$\Delta S = N k_B \ln \left(\frac{n_f}{n_i} \right) = N k_B \ln 2 \quad \text{if } \frac{V_f}{V_i} = 2$$

Q. Why can't we use $dU \stackrel{?}{=} dQ - \underbrace{dW}_{\substack{\text{work} \\ \downarrow \\ 0}} = T dS$

$$dS = \frac{1}{T} dU, \quad T \text{ const, so } \int dS = \int dU = 0$$

$$\Delta S \stackrel{?}{=} 0$$

2018

A. $dU = T dS$ assumes a reversible process, which this is not.

66

blank

- 2/17/03 Fri:
- 1. isothermal
 - 2. adiabatic
 - 3. isobaric
 - 4. irreversible
- } reversible processes

today: example
 metals
 wed: metals, Newton's laws

MIDTERM: Mon. 3/3 - one 8.5X11" sheet handwritten both sides; no calculator
 (won't be useful anyway)

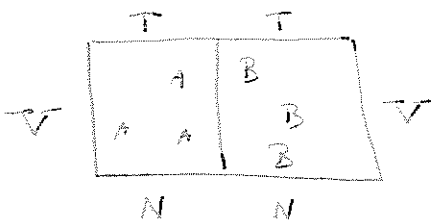
Some further comments on reversible processes of an ideal gas:

- 1) Where we had to heat the system externally (as in the isobaric expansion), it's important that the reservoir should be so much more infinitesimally different in T from the system, or the process will be inherently irreversible.
- 2) We're not limited to the processes outlined: any curve in the PV plane corresponds to ^{some} reversible process.
- 3) However, just because we can draw a PV curve does not mean that given process is reversible.

ex 6.6. READ

[already specified] To get the result K.B.V. want, we have to assume additionally that the two gases are at the same pressure, i.e., $P_A = P_B$

before



$n_A^A \neq n_B^B$ in general
 because masses may differ

show so

before $S = S_A + S_B = N k_B \left[\ln \left(\frac{n_B^A}{n} \right) + \ln \left(\frac{n_B^B}{n} \right) + S \right]$, $n = \frac{N}{2V}$ (same for A & B)

after $S' = S'_A + S'_B = N k_B \left[\ln \left(\frac{n_A^A}{n'} \right) + \ln \left(\frac{n_B^B}{n'} \right) + S \right]$, $n' = \frac{N}{2V}$

$\Delta S = S' - S = 2 N k_B \ln \left(\frac{n}{n'} \right) = \boxed{2 N k_B \ln 2}$

Paradox: What if A=B? Clearly, no change in entropy, since we were already in equilibrium before, yet calc. shows $\Delta S \neq 0$.

Sol'n, as we've seen before, is to correct for "indistinguishable" particles.

Before: $Z = Z_A Z_B = \left[\frac{(n_0 V)^N}{N!} \right]^2$

$$F = -k_B T \ln Z$$

$$= -2k_B T [N \ln(n_0 V) - N \ln N + N]$$

$$= -2Nk_B T [\ln(n_0 V) - \ln N + 1]$$

extensive, as shown in HW

After: $Z' = (2n_0 V)^{2N} / (2N)!$

$$F' = -Nk_B T [2 \ln(2n_0 V) - 2 \ln(2N) + 2]$$

$$= -2Nk_B T [\ln(n_0 V) + \ln 2 - \ln 2 - \ln N + 1] = F$$

Since $S' = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T}\right)_V$, $\Delta S = 0$.

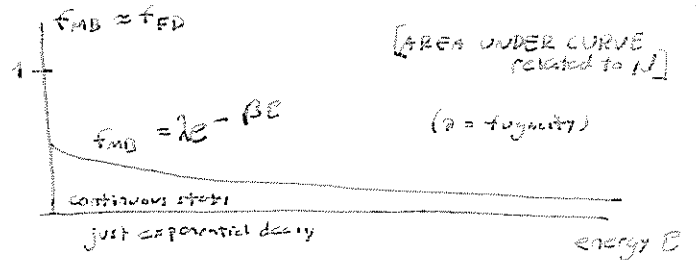
What determines the "typical" energy scale in a Fermi gas?

Classically, the only energy scale is $k_B T$.

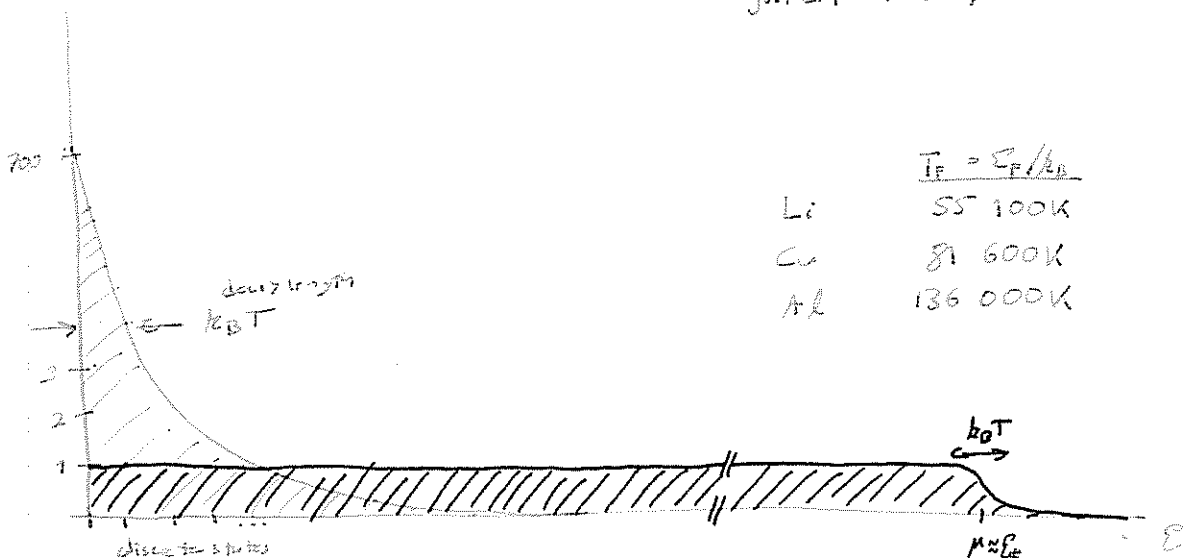
In QM, the density, n , controls the energy scale: if $n \gg n_Q(T)$, e^- must go to very high-energy states, because there isn't enough low-energy ones.

classical: $n \ll n_Q$, so $\mu \approx k_B T \ln(n/n_Q) \ll 0$.
Then $e^{\beta(\mu - \epsilon)} \gg 1$, so $f_{FD} \approx f_{FD}$.

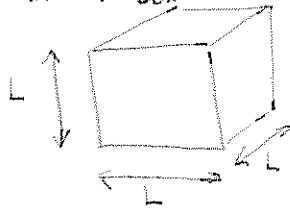
Schematics: non-degenerate (classical)



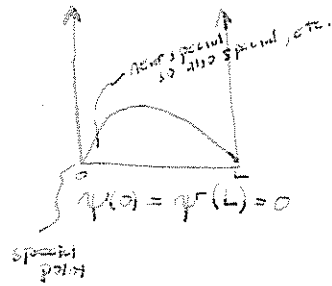
degenerate:



particle-in-a-box



boundary cond.:



Eigenstates are standing waves: no good for transport

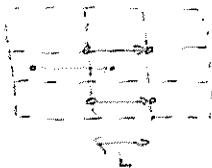
Born-von Karman (periodic) boundary conditions

$$\psi(x+L, y, z) = \psi(x, y, z)$$

etc.

This periodicity has nothing to do w/ underlying atomic structure ($L \gg a$): it is there only to let us do particle-in-a-box without the box. You may think of L as a sample size, although we're going to take $\lim_{L \rightarrow \infty}$.

No special points:



Sol'n to time-ind. SE: $\psi_{\vec{k}}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{L^{3/2}} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}}$

} normaliz'n

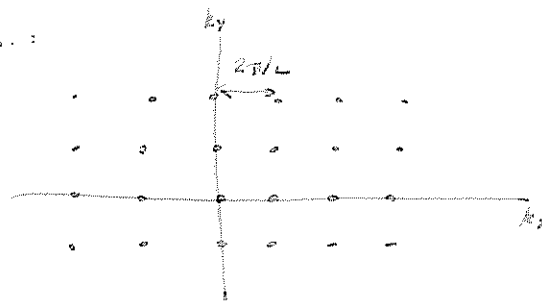
Since momentum $\hat{p} = i\hbar \nabla$, $\vec{p} = \hbar \vec{k}$ for free wave

b.c. $\Rightarrow e^{i\vec{k}_x L} = e^{i\vec{k}_y L} = e^{i\vec{k}_z L} = 1$

$$\Rightarrow k_j = \frac{2\pi n_j}{L}, \quad j = x, y, z, \quad n_j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

are as in K&K; conventional to use the k_j as 'fundamental'

In 2 dims.:



This discretization is artificial, since it depends on sample size (L). We're really interested in density of levels in k space.

A region of k space with volume $V_{k\text{-space}}$ contains $\left(\frac{M}{2\pi/L}\right)^3$ levels,



Problem 7.2: DOS in 1 & 2 dims.

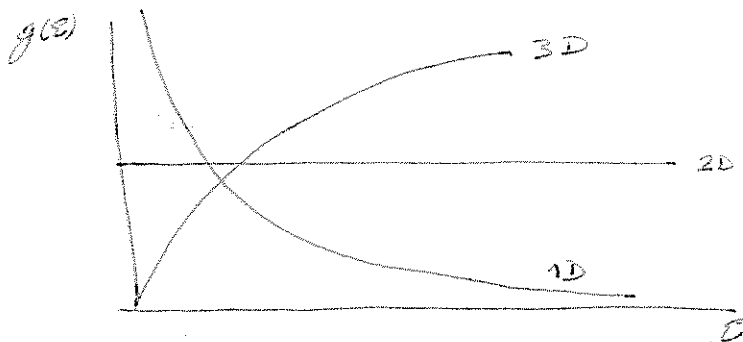
2D: could do it same way; here's an equivalent.

total # states per unit volume with $k \leq k_0 \equiv \mathcal{N} = 2 \frac{\overset{\text{spin}}{\pi k_0^2}}{4\pi^2} = \frac{k_0^2}{2\pi} = \frac{mE}{\pi\hbar^2}$ where $E = \frac{\hbar^2 k_0^2}{2m}$

$$g(\epsilon) = \frac{d\mathcal{N}}{d\epsilon} = \boxed{\frac{m}{\pi\hbar^2}}$$

1D: $\nu = 2 \cdot \frac{2k_0}{2\pi} = \frac{2k_0}{\pi} = \frac{2\sqrt{2mE}}{\pi\hbar}$

$$\frac{d\nu}{dE} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{\pi\hbar} \sqrt{\frac{2m}{E}} = \boxed{\frac{1}{\pi\hbar} \sqrt{\frac{2m}{E}}}$$



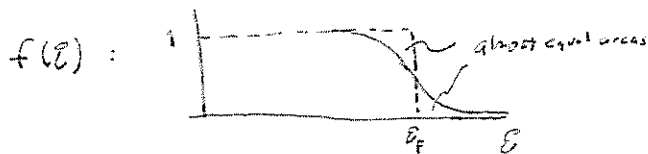
1D: energy levels get sparse at high energy since $E \propto k^2$

3D: more k -volume far out, so more levels

2D: effects exactly cancel

Implications for dep. of chem. pot. on T at low T:

need $n = \frac{N}{V} = \text{const.} = \int_0^\infty d\epsilon f_T(\epsilon) g(\epsilon)$



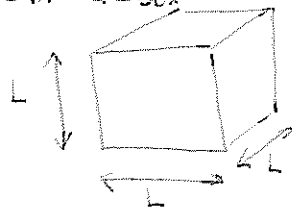
3D: since $g \uparrow$ as $E \uparrow$, we must shift $\mu \downarrow$; otherwise, triangle above μ loses $g(E > \mu)$ has more states than are below times $g(E < \mu)$

result: $\mu = E_F \left(\frac{T}{T_F} \right)^{2/3}$

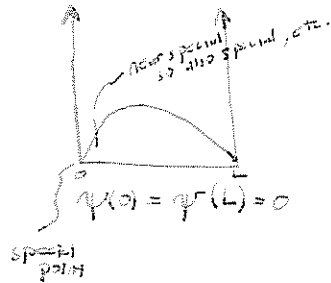
1D: $g \downarrow$ as $E \uparrow$, so $\mu \uparrow$

references: ABM ch2, app.5
 Pathria app.5

particle-in-a-box



boundary cond.:



Eigenstates are standing waves: no good for transport

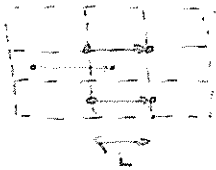
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No special points:



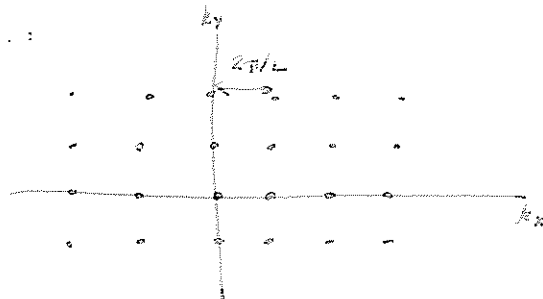
Sol'n to time-ind. SE: $\Psi_{\vec{k}}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{L^{3/2}} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}}$
} normaliz'n

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b.c. $\Rightarrow e^{i k_x L} = e^{i k_y L} = e^{i k_z L} = 1$

$\Rightarrow k_j = \frac{2\pi n_j}{L}$, $j = x, y, z$, $n_j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
are as in K&K; conventional to use the k_j as "quasimoment"

In 2 dims.:



This discretization is artificial, since it depends on sample size (L). We're really interested in density of levels in k space.

A region of k space with volume $V_{k\text{-space}}$ contains $\left(\frac{M}{2\pi/L}\right)^3$ levels,



So density of levels in k space = $\frac{L^3}{8\pi^3} = \frac{V}{8\pi^3}$ (V = volume of sample)

Energy $E = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$

Surface of constant E in k space is a sphere



At $T=0$, all states (dots) inside ^{some} sphere will be occupied, all outside unoccupied. (radius $= k_F$)

We fill dots up two at a time (spin \uparrow, \downarrow). How far out do we get in k space?

Density of e^- 's = $n = N/V$:

$$2 \cdot \frac{4\pi k_F^3}{3} \cdot \frac{V}{8\pi^3} = nV = N$$

\uparrow spin
 \uparrow volume in k space
 \uparrow density of levels in k space

$k_F^3 = 3n\pi^2$

$V(L)$ has dropped out.

Related measures: $E_F = \frac{\hbar^2 k_F^2}{2m} \sim 1.5 - 15 eV$ for a typical metal

$T_F = E_F/k_B \sim 10^4 - 10^5 K$

$v_F = p_F/m = \frac{\hbar k_F}{m} \sim 10^8 cm/s \sim 0.01 c$

accurate band-structure calc. include relativistic effects

NOT same as drift velocity (which is much slower) or propagation speed of a disturbance (which is near c)

At $T=0$, $\mu = \frac{\hbar^2 k_F^2}{2m} = E_F$. At $T>0$, chemical potential set by

$$\int d^3k \frac{V}{8\pi^3} 2 f_{FD}(E(k^2)) = N$$

where $f_{FD}(E) = \frac{e^{-\beta(E - \mu)}}{1 + e^{-\beta(E - \mu)}}$ (Fermi-Dirac)

$\int d^3k \cdot \frac{1}{4\pi^3} f_{FD}(E(k^2)) = n$

$$= \frac{1}{e^{\beta(E - \mu)} + 1}$$

This integral is most easily evaluated for free electrons by changing the integration variable from k to E , which depends only on the magnitude of k .

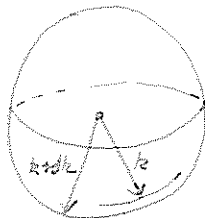
$$n = \int g(E) f_{FD}(E) dE$$

where $g(E)dE$ is the density of levels with energies between E and $E+dE$.

(K&K use $\frac{D(E)}{V}$, but that's harder to write)

1.2 density of states

Calculate $g(E)$ in 3 dims:



Volume of spherical shell in k space is $\frac{4\pi}{3} [(k+dk)^3 - k^3]$

$$= 4\pi k^2 dk + O(dk)^2.$$

It contains (per unit sample volume, V):

$$2 \cdot \frac{1}{8\pi^3} \cdot 4\pi k^2 dk = \frac{k^2}{\pi^2} dk$$

spin density of levels volume of shell

states levels, all at energy $E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$
below, set = $g(E)dE$

$$\frac{k^2}{\pi^2} dk = g(E) dE$$

Eliminate dk from l.h.s.: $k = \frac{1}{\hbar} \sqrt{2mE}$, so $dk = \frac{2m}{\hbar} (2mE)^{-1/2} dE$

$$= \frac{m dE}{\hbar \sqrt{2mE}}$$

$$\text{So } g(E)dE = \frac{k^2}{\pi^2} \frac{m dE}{\hbar \sqrt{2mE}}$$

$$= \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \cdot \frac{m dE}{\hbar \sqrt{2mE}} = \frac{m \sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar^3 \pi^2} dE \quad \text{for } E \geq 0$$

2/19/03

Mondy: Classical entropy of mixing

Fermi gas: density of one-particle levels in k space

Tuesday: metals, neutron stars

Fri.: Bosons

Problem 7.2: DOS in 1 & 2 dims.

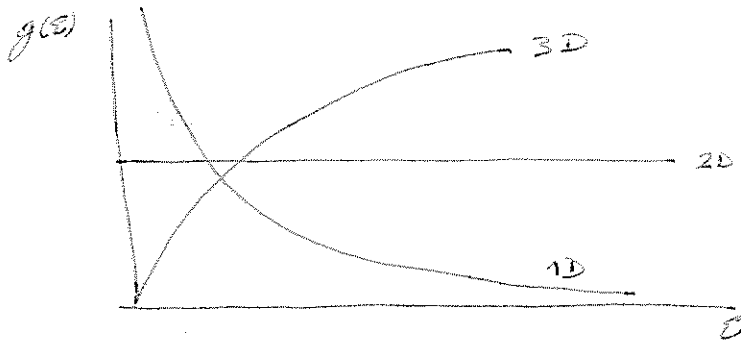
2D: could do it some way; here's an equivalent.

total # states per unit volume with $k \leq k_0 \equiv \mathcal{V} = 2 \overset{\text{spin}}{\frac{\pi k_0^2}{4\pi^2}} = \frac{k_0^2}{2\pi} = \frac{mE}{\pi\hbar^2}$ where $E = \frac{\hbar^2 k_0^2}{2m}$

$$g(E) = \frac{d\mathcal{V}}{dE} = \boxed{\frac{m}{\pi\hbar^2}}$$

1D: $\mathcal{V} = 2 \cdot \frac{2k_0}{2\pi} = \frac{2k_0}{\pi} = \frac{2\sqrt{2mE}}{\pi\hbar}$

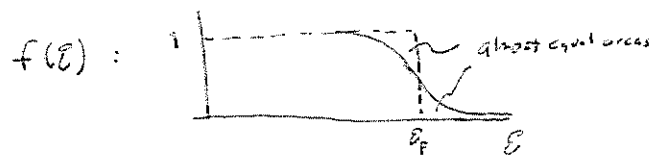
$$\frac{d\mathcal{V}}{dE} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{\pi\hbar} \sqrt{\frac{2m}{E}} = \boxed{\frac{1}{\pi\hbar} \sqrt{\frac{2m}{E}}}$$



- 1D: energy levels get sparser at high energy since $E \propto k^2$
- 3D: more k -volume far out, so more levels
- 2D: effects exactly cancel

Implications for dep. of chem. pot. on T at low T:

need $n = \frac{N}{\mathcal{V}} = \text{const.} = \int_0^\infty dE f_F(E) g(E)$



3D: since $g \uparrow$ as $E \uparrow$, we must shift $\mu \downarrow$; otherwise, triangle above μ loses $g(E > \mu)$ has more states than are below lines $g(E < \mu)$
 result: $\mu = E_F - \left(\frac{T}{T_F}\right)^{2/3} kT$

1D: $g \downarrow$ as $E \uparrow$, so $\mu \uparrow$

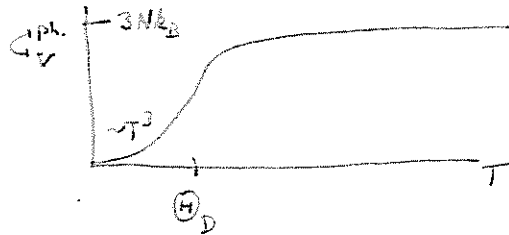
Heat Capacity of metals:

1. Why does deLoy-Petit work so well, when it ignores conduction e^- ? ^{at high T}
 $(3Nk_B)$

which should contribute... $\sim \frac{3}{2} N k_B$

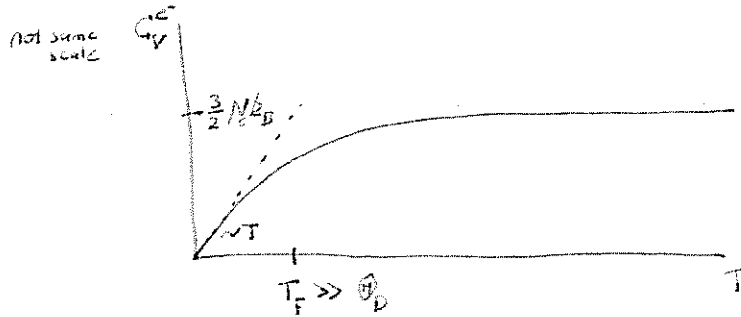
2. Why is C_V much bigger at very low T than the $\sim T^3$ predicted by the phonon theory at low T?

Recall phonon theory:



[better drawn next]

answer:



$N_e \neq$ conduction e^-

Answers to previous:

1) At $\theta_D \leq T \ll T_F$, $3Nk_B \gg C_V^e-$

2) At $T \ll \theta_D$, linear in T wins out over $\sim T^3$ ($C_V^e- \gg C_V^{ph}$)

$T \ll T_F$

$$C_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_{V,N} = \frac{d\beta}{dT} \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial \beta} \right)_{V,N} = -\frac{1}{k_B T^2} \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial \beta} \right)_{V,N}$$

$$U(T) = \int_0^\infty d\epsilon \epsilon g(\epsilon) f(\beta, \epsilon)$$

1. only β dependent, through both β and μ

$$f(\beta, \epsilon) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1}$$

2nd order in β (or T) Sommerfeld

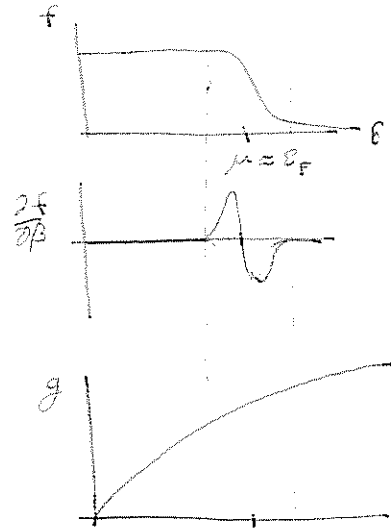
2. Kohn do some acrobatics to put $\epsilon - E_F$ here instead of ϵ - comes down to arbitrary choice of origin (compensated by limit on integral)

-acrobatics correct not unnecessary

$$\frac{C_V}{V} = -\frac{1}{k_B T^2} \int_0^\infty dE \ E \ g(E) \ \frac{\partial f(\beta E)}{\partial \beta}$$

non zero only within $\sim k_B T$ of μ , varies rapidly

varies slowly by comparison, so take out at E_F



set $\mu = E_F$ ($\sim O((T/T_F)^2 E_F$)

$$\frac{C_V}{V} \approx -\frac{g(E_F)}{k_B T^2} \int_0^\infty dE \ E \ (-1) [e^{(\beta E - E_F)} + 1]^{-2} (\beta E - E_F - \beta \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \beta}) e^{(\beta E - E_F) / \beta}$$

second order, so ignore

Let $x = (\beta E - E_F)$

$E = k_B T x + E_F$

$$\frac{C_V}{V} \approx \frac{g(E_F)}{k_B T^2} \int_{-E_F/\beta}^\infty k_B T dx \ (k_B T x + E_F) [e^x + 1]^{-2} k_B T x e^x$$

$$= g(E_F) k_B \int_{-E_F/\beta}^\infty \frac{(k_B T x^2 + E_F x) e^x}{(e^x + 1)^2} dx$$

tiny for $x \ll -E_F/\beta$ since $E_F/\beta \gg 1$

$$\approx k_B g(E_F) \left[k_B T \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{x^2 e^x}{(e^x + 1)^2} dx + E_F \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{x e^x}{(e^x + 1)^2} dx \right]$$

second integral

$$= \frac{x e^x}{(e^x + 1)^2} \frac{e^{-x}}{e^{-x}} = \frac{x}{(e^{x/2} + e^{-x/2})^2}$$

odd, so integral vanishes

first integral: BOOK $\rightarrow \pi^2/6$

2/21/03 Wed: DOS $g(E) = \frac{m\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar^3 \pi^2}$ (3D)

today: finish C_V Calc. for degenerate Fermi gas
 start Bose gas
 Mon.: Superfluidity

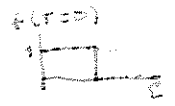
setup p73, p74

$$\frac{C_V}{V} = \frac{1}{3} \pi^2 g(E_F) k_B^2 T$$

$$g(E_F) = \frac{m\sqrt{2mE_F}}{\hbar^3 \pi^2} = \frac{m E_F^{3/2} \sqrt{2m}}{\hbar^3 \pi^2 E_F}$$

will be convenient below

To get E_F in terms of n (density), fix at zero temp.:

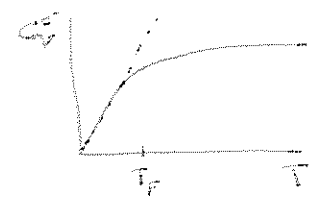


$$n = \frac{N}{V} = \int_0^{E_F} g(E) f(T=0, E) dE = \int_0^{E_F} g(E) dE = \int_0^{E_F} \frac{m\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar^3 \pi^2} dE = \frac{m^{3/2} \sqrt{2}}{\hbar^3 \pi^2} \frac{2}{3} E_F^{3/2}$$

$$\text{or } E_F^{3/2} = \frac{3}{2} n \frac{\hbar^3 \pi^2}{m^{3/2} \sqrt{2}}$$

$$\text{so } g(E_F) = \frac{m\sqrt{2m}}{\hbar^3 \pi^2} \cdot \frac{1}{E_F} \cdot \frac{3}{2} n \frac{\hbar^3 \pi^2}{m^{3/2} \sqrt{2}} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{n}{E_F} = \boxed{\frac{3}{2} \frac{n}{k_B T_F}}$$

Thus the volumetric specific heat $\frac{C_V}{V} = \boxed{\frac{1}{2} \pi^2 n k_B \frac{T}{T_F}}$ for $T \ll T_F$



The results are good for some metals, not so good for others. Since $T_F = T_F(m)$, we can fudge the bad results by replacing $m \rightarrow m^*$

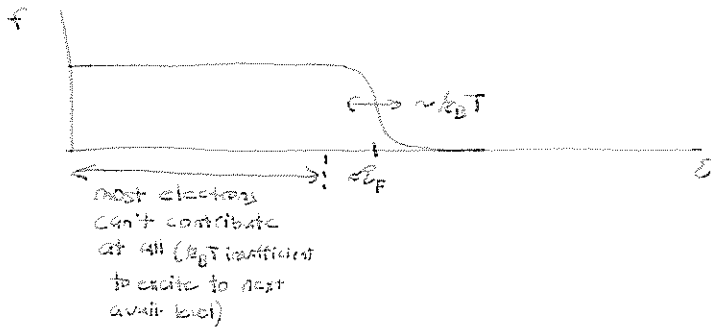
metal	m^*/m
Ag	1.1
Au	1.1
K	1.2
Na	1.3
Nb	1.2
Mn	2.7
Bi	0.047

Main source of discrepancy, surprisingly, not neglected e^-e^- interaction so much as neglected lattice periodicity:

- 1) Fermi surface not necessarily spherical
- 2) band effective mass $m^* (\neq m_e^*)$

$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*}$$

Physically-plausible argument for the linear G_V :



$$\begin{aligned} \# \text{ e}^- &= N \\ \text{fraction that can contribute} &\approx \frac{k_B T}{E_F} \\ \text{"equipartition"} &\rightarrow \frac{1}{2} k_B T \\ U &\approx \frac{N}{2} (k_B T)^2 / E_F \end{aligned}$$

$$G_V \approx N k_B^2 T / E_F = N k_B (T/T_F) \quad \text{misses only the factor } \pi^2/2$$

Estimate T_F for a monovalent free- e^- metal:

N_A lattice constant $a = 4.23 \text{ \AA}$



1 valence e^- per N_A , so # density of atoms = # density of e^- :

$$n = \frac{\frac{1}{8} \cdot 8 + 1}{a^3} = \frac{2}{a^3} = 2.6 \cdot 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

$$T_F = \frac{E_F}{k_B} = \frac{1}{k_B} \left(\frac{3}{2} n \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{m^{3/2} \sqrt{2}} \right)^{2/3} = 37000 \text{ K}$$

Some other Fermi gases:

e^- in white-dwarf star $T_F \sim 3 \cdot 10^7 \text{ K}$

$T \sim 10^4 \text{ K}$ so again, fermions

the e^- 's point of view, a white dwarf is very cold (\rightarrow degenerate Fermi gas)

$\rho \approx$ [RKK show that $n \approx \frac{1}{2} \frac{m c^3}{h^3} \frac{v_{rms}^3}{v_{Fermi}^3}$ so really should replace letter with relativistic version $c^3 m^3$]

Neutron star: n, p^+ are Fermions
 (really a quark-gluon soup, but n -like and p -like quasiparticles)

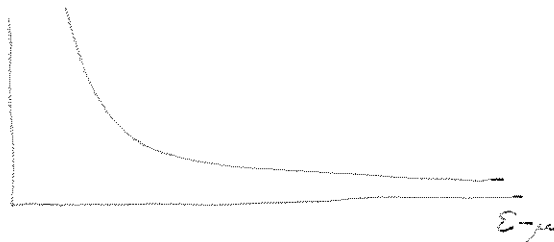
$$T_F \sim 3 \cdot 10^{11} \text{ K}$$

2/2/20

I should offer examples of non-degenerate Fermi gases: e^- in semiconductors (doped or intrinsic), ^{40}K or ^{87}Rb , etc. - or a Fermi gas of ^{23}Na

Bose gas - N Bosons (e.g. ^4He atoms - $2p^+, 2n, 2e^-$ ea.)

$$f_{BE}(T, E) = \frac{1}{e^{(\beta\mu + \beta E)_+}}$$



At any temp, $\mu < E_{\text{ground}}$ to avoid blow-up + neg. occ. #

w.o. neg., set $E_{\text{ground}} = 0$, so $\mu < 0$.

For Bose gas at low T , we cannot replace the sum over \mathbb{Z} states with an integral over a D.O.S., since as the graph shows, occupation of low-energy states may be significant.

$$N = \sum_{\text{states}} f_{BE}(T, E_s)$$

At $T=0$ exactly, μ must be such that $f_{BE}(0, E_s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } E_s = 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } E_s > 0 \end{cases}$

We can't extend f_{BE} directly at $T=0$, so we take a limit:

$$N \equiv \lim_{T \rightarrow 0} f_{BE}(T, E=0) = \lim_{T \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{e^{-\beta\mu} - 1} \quad ; \quad 0 < -\beta\mu < 1 \quad \text{equally hard, since } T \rightarrow 0 \text{ can't afford}$$

$$= \lim_{T \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{(1 - \mu\beta + \frac{1}{2}(\mu\beta)^2 - \dots) - 1} = -\lim_{T \rightarrow 0} \frac{k_B T}{\mu} = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\mu}{k_B T}\right)^2$$

So in limit, $\mu = -\frac{k_B T}{N} = -\left(\frac{1}{N}\right)^2$

Difference between BE & MB at very low T:

particle in a box $E = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\pi}{L}\right)^2 (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2)$, $n_x, n_y, n_z \geq 1$

$E \uparrow \quad \vdots$

$\Delta E \downarrow$ first excited: $(2,1,1) \rightarrow (1,2,1) \rightarrow (1,1,2)$
ground: $n_x = n_y = n_z = 1$

μ infinitesimally below zero
below zero

ply in $L = 1\text{cm}$, $m = \text{mass of } ^4\text{He}$

$\Delta E = 3 \cdot 10^{-30} \text{ eV} = \frac{1}{k_B} \cdot 2 \cdot 10^{-14} \text{ K}$

For particles at $E_{\text{ground}} = 0$. Set $T = 1\text{mK} \gg \frac{\Delta E}{k_B}$

so energy spacing doesn't appear important, classically

$n \sim 10^{22}/\text{cm}^3$

$\beta = 9.724 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ erg}^{-1}$ $k_B T = 1.389 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ erg}$

$\mu = \frac{k_B T}{N} \sim 1.4 \cdot 10^{-41} \text{ erg}$

energy) problem

all cases, a
first excited
state

all. prob (ground)
all. prob (1st excited)

= ① Boltzmann: $\frac{\lambda e^0}{\lambda e^{-\Delta E \beta}} \approx \frac{1}{\exp(-2 \cdot 10^{-11})}$

$\approx \frac{1}{1 - 2 \cdot 10^{-11}} \approx 1 + 2 \cdot 10^{-11} \approx 1$

ground and first excited state equally occupied

② Quantum: $\frac{\exp[(\Delta E - \mu)\beta] - 1}{\exp[-\mu\beta] - 1}$

$= \frac{\exp[(3 \cdot 10^{-30} \text{ erg} + 1.4 \cdot 10^{-41} \text{ erg}) \cdot 9.72 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ erg}^{-1}] - 1}{\exp[1.4 \cdot 10^{-41} \text{ erg} \cdot 9.72 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ erg}^{-1}] - 1}$

$= \frac{e^{2 \cdot 10^{-11}} - 1}{e^{10^{-22}} - 1} \stackrel{\text{Taylor}}{=} \frac{2 \cdot 10^{-11}}{10^{-22}} = 2 \cdot 10^{11}$

So the first excited state isn't very important.

In fact, at this temp, only 1 ground state matters (despite $k_B T \gg \Delta E$).

2/24/03 last week: degenerate Fermi gas
 today: degenerate Bose gas
 interactions \rightarrow Superfluidity
 Wed.: Superfluidity
 review

pp. 77-78

Number in ground $N_0 = \frac{1}{e^{-\mu_B} - 1} = \frac{1}{\lambda^{-1} - 1}$

occupation of all excited states — justified using an integral (rather than a sum) because nothing special in ratio of 2nd excited to 1st excited (μ far away from both \rightarrow no tiny denominator as on p. 78)

in all excited states $N_e = \int_0^\infty dE g(B) f_{BE}(E)$ same $g(B)$ as for e^- gas

Note: this misses the ground state, since in 3D $g(0) = 0$.

$N_e \stackrel{\text{back}}{=} \frac{3}{2.61238} n_B V$

EF $\lambda = e^{+\mu_B} \approx 1$

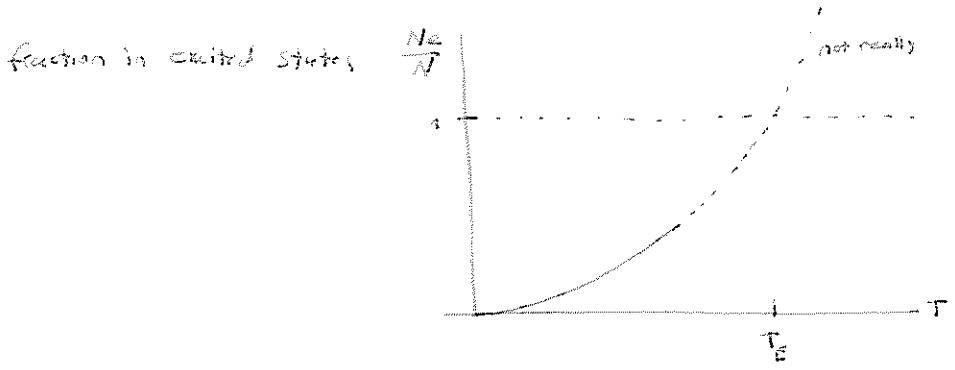
Same approx'n as $\mu \approx -\frac{k_B T}{N}$ ($\pm \mathcal{O}(T/T_{\text{condens}})$)

$\lambda = e^{N\mu} = e^{-1/N} \approx 1$

$\equiv \frac{3}{2} \cdot C \cdot T^{3/2} V$ (constant)

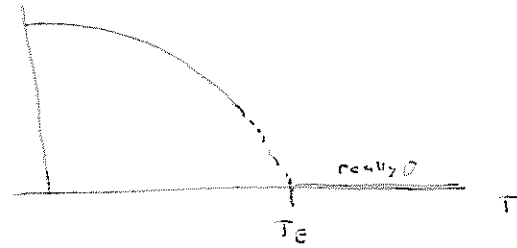
$C = \left(\frac{M k_B}{2\pi\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2}$

$\equiv (T/T_E)^{3/2} N$ where $T_E = \left[\frac{N}{C V \frac{3}{2}} \right]^{2/3}$



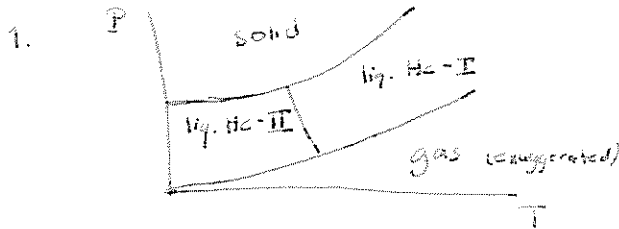
T_E is the temp. scale for which $\mu \approx -\frac{k_B T}{N} - \mathcal{O}(T^2/T_E)$, so the approx'n breaks down for $T \gg T_E$.

fraction in ground state $1 - \frac{N_2}{N}$



Phenomenology of ^4He

- interactions strong, so not a gas but a liquid
 However, for some purposes gas model still good



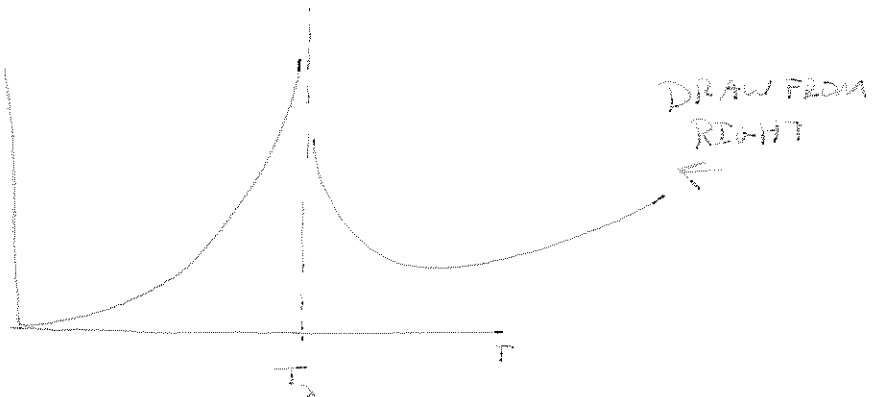
not respecting substances do not stay liquid down to $T=0$, but ^4He does
 "3rd law" = unique ground state (or at least # ground states \neq grows more slowly than e^N)
 suggests ^4He is a perfectly ordered fluid (unlike any normal liquid)

2. Appearance going through transition (cooling) ^{evaporative}

clear fluid above & below crit temp
 but no visible boiling below
 ← excellent thermal conductivity
 (heat conducted ballistically instead of diffusively, so
 technically $\kappa = \infty$)

3.

specific heat C_p



"A" because it looks like Λ . $T_A = T_E$

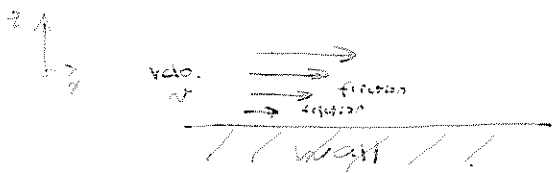
Divergence in specific heat characteristic of a 2nd order phase transition

One with an order parameter that's zero on the high-T side & goes continuously to zero on the low-T side.

4/2/1998
2/1/1998

4. Physicists do not abuse the term "super" \neq very
= beyond, on top of

flow of a normal fluid in a tube



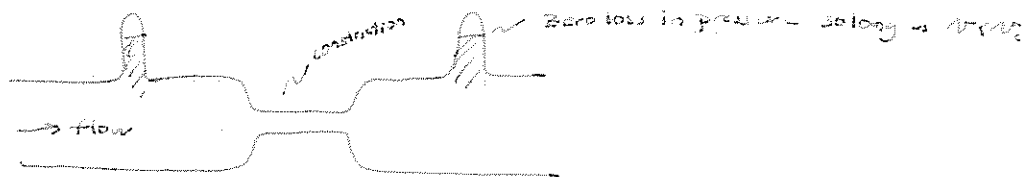
drag force per unit area = $\eta \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}$
 η = viscosity


Sample viscosities (laminar flow)

linseed oil	30°C	3.3 poise	(= $\frac{\text{dyne sec}}{\text{cm}^2}$)
water	30°C	$8.00 \cdot 10^{-3}$	
air	20°C	$1.83 \cdot 10^{-4}$	
$^4\text{He} - \text{II}$	< 2.7K	0	($< 10^{-9}$ poise) Kapitza 1937 Kapitza 1941 see RMP 26, 192 (1954)

exact: $\nabla \cdot \vec{v} = 0$ so $\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = 0 \Rightarrow$ no drag force

Some evidence



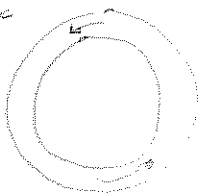
push powder into tube  so normal fluid will get through

$T > T_c$: nothing gets through

$T < T_c$: no loss in pressure (no impediment to flow)

Talk about super-tubes in superfluid physics

gyroscope



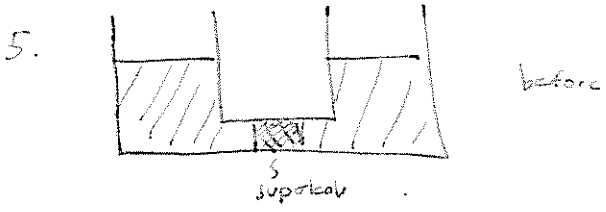
Start flow in tube $T > T_c$. Cool down below T_c . Stop

rotator: how long does fluid continue to flow

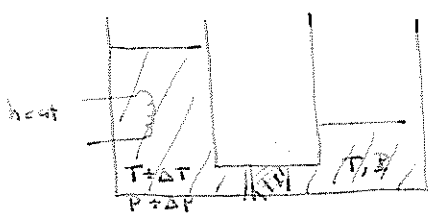
(with gyroscope)? Forever. (Longer than experimenters willing to wait.)

added: weirdness: $T \uparrow$ (but ST_x): ang. mom. decreases (torque!)
 $T \downarrow$ to orig.: original ang. mom. restored.

Apparently μ stays constant, only mass (fraction of participating helium) changes.



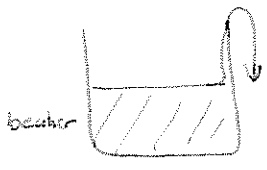
"fountain effect"



during β after - stays this way so long as normal component cannot go through superleak

opposite also true: if fluid forced right \rightarrow left, left side will be warmer (not Peltier, which is a small effect and irreversible - this effect is large & reversible).

6. Supersiphon



Capillary height very great because He would rather be wet to just about anything other than He ("universal wetter"); no loss due to friction, because there isn't any.

7. $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v} = 0$: \circ if we try to rotate, get vortices of normal fluid (quantized) - this and fountain effect show that superfluid and normal parts of fluid are really not quite mixed

2/26/03

- Mon.: Bose gas
- today: Superfluid (already showed 1. phase diagram 2. appearance 3. etc)
- review
- Fri.: review

93

Two-fluid model: normal component and superfluid component.

Entropy of latter = 0.

most striking aspect of s.f. is lack of friction in flow - origin:

For friction, we need a collision between wall & s.f. creating an excited state in latter. Convenient to work in rest frame of s.f., so we have

	<u>wall</u>		<u>superfluid</u>	
	<u>before</u>	<u>after</u>	<u>before</u>	<u>after</u>
momentum	\vec{P}	\vec{P}'	0	$\hbar\vec{k}$
energy	E	E'	0	ϵ

initial wall velocity: \vec{v}
mass M

$$\vec{P}' = \vec{P} - \hbar\vec{k} \quad (\hbar\vec{k} \text{ transferred from wall to s.f.})$$

Square:

$$P'^2 = P^2 - 2\hbar\vec{P}\cdot\vec{k} + \hbar^2 k^2$$

$$P'^2 - P^2 = \hbar^2 k^2 - 2\hbar\vec{P}\cdot\vec{k}$$

$$\underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}_{\text{"}}$$

$$2M(E' - E)$$

$$\underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}_{\text{"}}$$

$$-2M\epsilon \quad (\text{energy transferred to s.f.})$$

$$\text{or } \epsilon = \frac{\hbar\vec{P}\cdot\vec{k}}{M} - \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2M}$$

$$\vec{P}/M = \vec{v}, \text{ so}$$

$$\epsilon = \hbar k v \cos\theta - \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2M}$$

$\rightarrow 0$ for wall mass large

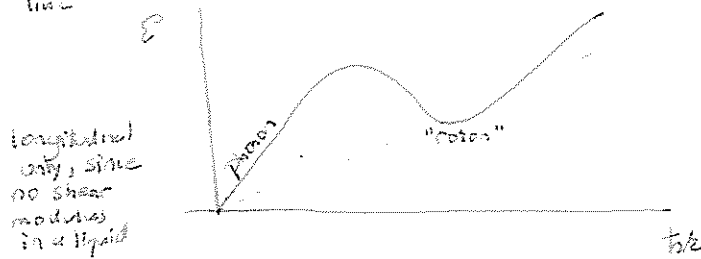


$$v = \frac{\epsilon}{\hbar k} [\cos\theta]^{-1}$$

Since $|\cos\theta| \leq 1$,

$$|\omega| \geq \frac{E}{\hbar k}$$

Now we have to look at excitations in the superfluid. The fluid is interacting, so excitations don't consist of moving isolated atoms, as in ^{ideal} gas, but are more like sound (as in air, water, solids). The dispersion curve looks like



For any k , the quantity $\frac{E}{\hbar k}$ is the slope of a line going from the origin to $E(k)$. The smallest such slope is ---
USE RULER

If $v < \frac{E_{\text{roton}}}{\hbar k_{\text{roton}}}$, the collision cannot occur.

Now B-E condensate, e.g. Rb, NOT superfluid. mean free path < λ

Outline of course so far

Microcanonical Ensemble - ensemble of isolated systems
 internal energy U , volume V , $\#N$ fixed



all microstates with U, V, N equally likely: number of such = $g(U, V, N)$

entropy $S = k_B \ln g$

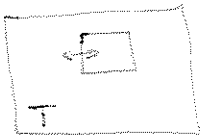
split into two subsystems that can exchange energy



most likely partition of energy equalizes temperature:

$$T = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S} \right)_{V, N}$$

Canonical Ensemble - ensemble of systems in thermal equilibrium w/reservoir



system in (many-body) state α with energy E_α
 with probability

$$\frac{e^{-\beta E_\alpha}}{Z}$$

where $Z = \sum_\alpha e^{-\beta E_\alpha}$

Helmholtz free energy, $F = U - TS = -k_B T \ln Z$

F minimized at equilibrium for fixed T, V , and N .

Grand-Canonical Ensemble - ensemble of systems in thermal & diffusive equilibrium w/reservoir

System in (many-body) state α with energy $E_{\alpha, N}$

w/ prob. $\frac{\lambda^N e^{-\beta E_{\alpha, N}}}{\mathcal{Z}}$



fugacity $\lambda = e^{\beta \mu}$

grand partition fun. $\mathcal{Z} = \sum_{N, \alpha} \lambda^N e^{-\beta E_{\alpha, N}}$; chem. pot. $\mu = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N} \right)_{T, V}$

2/27/03

review: 1. ensembles
2. gases
3. laws

After spring break, we'll see that the Gibbs free energy, $G(T, P, N) = U - TS + PV$, is minimized at equilibrium for fixed T, P , and N .

Ideal (=non-interacting) gas

Single-particle states ϵ_n

total energy is sum of occupied single-particle energies (=non-interacting)

Classical: $n \ll n_Q = \left(\frac{m k_B T}{2\pi \hbar^2} \right)^{3/2}$

equation of state $PV = N k_B T$

energy (equipartition) $U(T) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \# \text{degrees of freedom} \cdot k_B T = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T$ if monatomic

entropy (Sackur-Tetrode) $S = N [\ln(n_Q/n) + 5/2] + S_{\text{internal}}$

note: S contains \hbar in it: if we take $\hbar \rightarrow 0$, $S \rightarrow \infty$

heat capacity $C_V = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T} \right)_{V, N} = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_{V, N} = \frac{3}{2} N k_B + C_V^{\text{internal}}$

"occupation" of a single-particle state $f_{nB}(T, \epsilon) = e^{-\beta \epsilon}$ OK if $\ll 1$

Example of using Sackur-Tetrode for monatomic ideal gas -

In adiabatic (isentropic) expansion: at fixed N , show that $T \sim V^{-2/3}$.

$$S = N [\ln(n_Q/n) + 5/2] = \text{const.}$$

$$\text{so } \frac{n_Q}{n} = \text{const.}$$

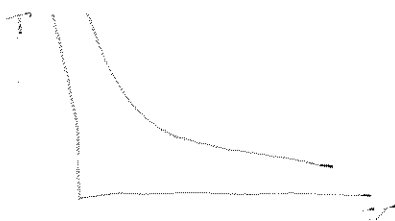
$$\text{but } n_Q \sim T^{3/2}, \quad n = \frac{N}{V} \sim V^{-1}$$

$$\text{so } T^{3/2} V = \text{const.}$$

or

$$T \sim V^{-2/3}$$

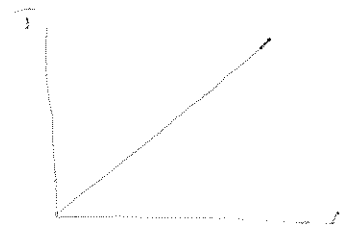
Sketch:



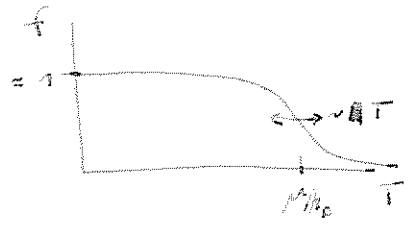
Contrast to isobaric expansion:

$$PV = N k_B T,$$

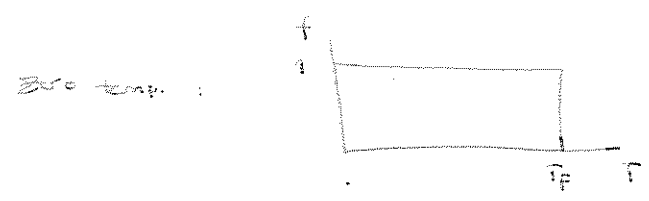
$$\text{so } T \sim V$$



Fermi: occupation $f_{FD}(T, \epsilon) = \frac{0 + e^{-(\epsilon - \mu)\beta}}{1 + e^{-(\epsilon - \mu)\beta}} = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon - \mu)\beta} + 1}$



$0 < T \ll T_F: \mu(T) = \epsilon_F - \mathcal{O}(T^2/T_F)$



concentration (number density) $n = \int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon g(\epsilon) f(\epsilon)$ DOS $g(\epsilon) \sim \begin{cases} \epsilon^{-1/2} & 1D \\ \text{const.} & 2D \\ \epsilon^{1/2} & 3D \end{cases}$

$C_V \sim \begin{cases} T & \text{for } T \ll T_F \text{ from graphical argument} \\ \text{const.} & \text{for } T \gg T_F \text{ equipartition} \end{cases}$

Bose

1) particle \neq not conserved

Planck: $f_{BE}(\hbar\omega) = \frac{1}{e^{(\hbar\omega - \mu)\beta} - 1}$

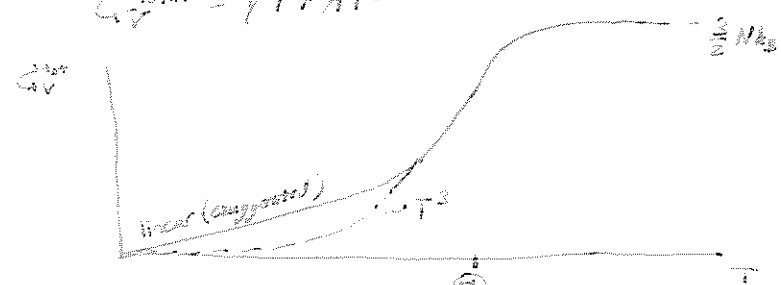
Assertion: $\mu = 0$. Check: at $T=0$, $\beta = \infty$, so $f_{BE}(\hbar\omega) = 0$
 \Rightarrow no photons at $T=0$. in equilibrium.

$\frac{U}{V} = \int d\omega g(\hbar\omega) \hbar\omega f_{BE}(\hbar\omega) \sim T^4$

$C_V \sim T^3$ photons or phonon

For metals, combine phonon (Bose) & e⁻ (Fermi) heat capacities:

$C_V^{\text{total}} = \gamma T + AT^3$



For $T \gg T_F$, it would approach to $3/2 Nk_B$

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per unit freq.: $\frac{U}{V} = \int d\omega u_\omega$

with u_ω



black-body radiation



flux $\sim T^4$ (Stefan-Boltzmann)

emissivity = absorptivity = 1 - reflectivity

2) particle # conserved

$$f_{BE}(E) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/kT} - 1}, \quad \mu(T) < 0, \text{ fixed through}$$

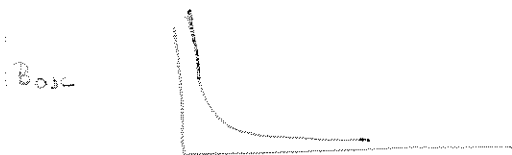
$$N = \int_0^\infty dE g(E) f_{BE}(E)$$

helium - just covered

Comparison of degenerate Bose & Fermi gases



much higher energies than one would expect ($T_F \sim 10^4 - 10^5$ in atoms)



lowest energy much more important than one would expect

$$\text{(e.g., } \sum_{i=1}^N E_i \ll T \ll T_E$$

gives almost all particles in ground state)

Laws

$$dU = TdQ + PdW, \quad \mu = \frac{\partial U}{\partial N}$$

$$TdQ \leq TdS$$

0. If A in equilib. w/ B, B w/ C, A is in eq. with C.

1. $dU = TdS - PdV + \mu dN$

(heat is work and work is heat)

2. $dS \geq 0$

(heat cannot out itself... connections not local)

3. $S \rightarrow 0$ as $T \rightarrow 0$

(almost always)

att.:

1) It's a zero-sum game.

2) You can't win.

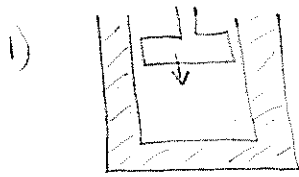
3) You can break even only at $T=0$.

today: heat engine

wed.: heat pump, fridge, etc.

3/23/2004 — return tests

Recall two ways (not only ways) of reversibly adding energy to a gas:



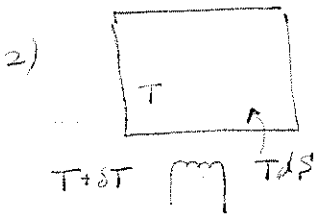
Adiabatic compression

$$dU = -F dx = -P dV$$

mechanical work done on gas

no change in entropy of system

F = force, dx = displacement

Isochoric heating

$$dU = T dS$$

no mechanical work
entropy increases

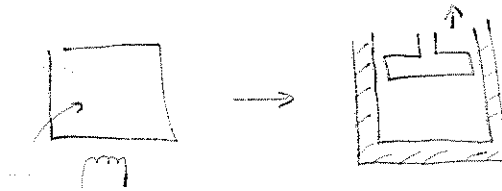
reversible only if

T difference infinitesimal
(idealization)Discuss subtlety of reversible heating: put small bit in a larger
box undergoing infinitesimally slow adiabatic compression.

In general, $dU = T dS - P dV$
 $\equiv dQ + dW$

\mathcal{J} as reminder: no separate
entity in gas called "total heat Q "
or "total work W "

example:

let adiabatic expansion do work
(e.g., lift car)

We've converted some heat to work, so there's clearly no separate store
of "heat" or "work."

Conversion not arbitrary, however, because there IS a separate store
of entropy, S , in the system, and S can't be destroyed.

Engine: convert heat \rightarrow work

In example above we could do a little, but eventually, as piston keeps going
up, we run out of cylinder. Put another way, entropy keeps
accumulating — need to dump it before we can continue.

Cyclic engine: moves heat and work around, periodically returning to initial internal state.

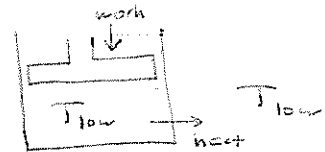
example:

Carnot engine in 4 states (review) (ideal gas)

START ① $T = T_{low}$, max. V_1



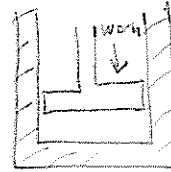
A: compress isothermally (i.e., in contact w/ reservoir T_{low})



② $T = T_{low}$, $V_2 < V_1$



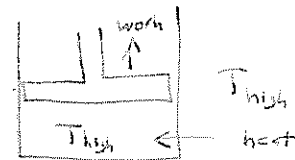
B: compress adiabatically - gets hotter



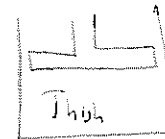
③ now it's at T_{high} , min. vol. V_3



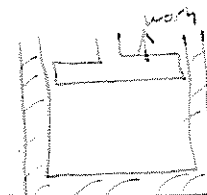
C: expand to V_4 in contact w/ reservoir T_{high} (isothermally)



④ still at T_{high} , volume V_4



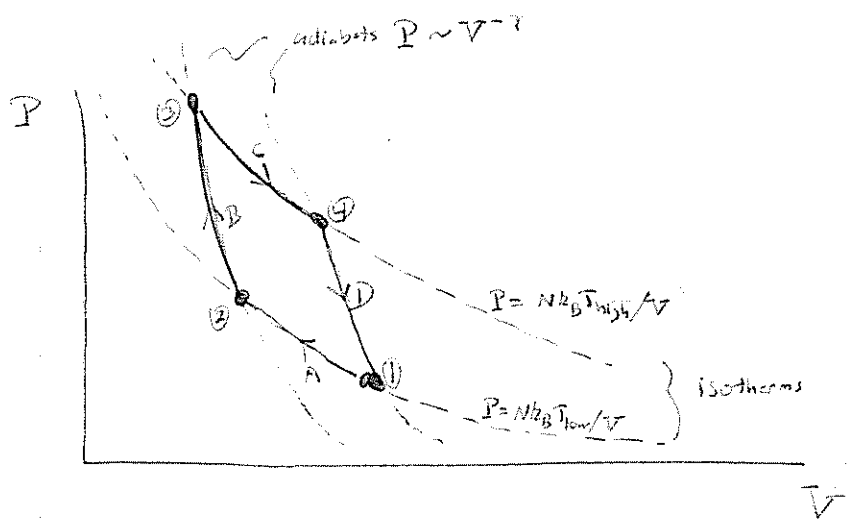
D: continue expansion adiabatically - cools to T_{low}



① back to original

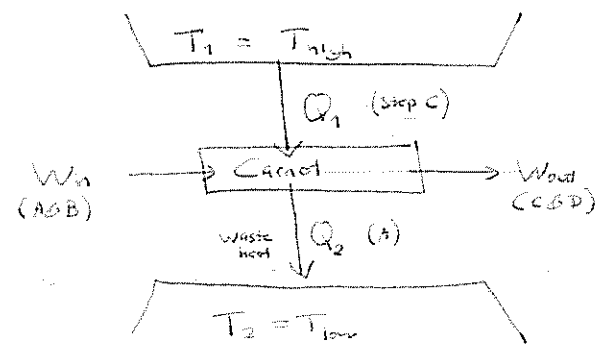


88.3



More work extracted in steps C & D than put back in steps A & B
 (areas under curves — show)
 more heat extracted from T_{high} in steps C than dumped at T_{low} in step A.

Diagram for net effect of ONE CYCLE:



First law: $W_{in} + Q_1 = W_{out} + Q_2$

We'd like it if Q_2 were as small as possible, since it comes @ expense of useful work W_{out} .

Unfortunately, we cannot make it zero.

Second Law: total change in entropy of whole universe ≥ 0



Now $\Delta S_{system} = 0$ in one cycle

$$\Delta S_{universe} = \Delta S_{hot} + \Delta S_{cold}$$

hot (step C) cold (step A)

since work carries no entropy

88.4

$$T_1 \Delta S_1 = -Q_1; \quad T_2 \Delta S_2 = +Q_2$$

so

$$\Delta S_{\text{universe}} = -\frac{Q_1}{T_1} + \frac{Q_2}{T_2} \geq 0$$

$$Q_2 \geq Q_1 \frac{T_2}{T_1}$$

we cannot make it any smaller

Express in terms of net work $\Delta W = W_{\text{out}} - W_{\text{in}} = Q_1 - Q_2$

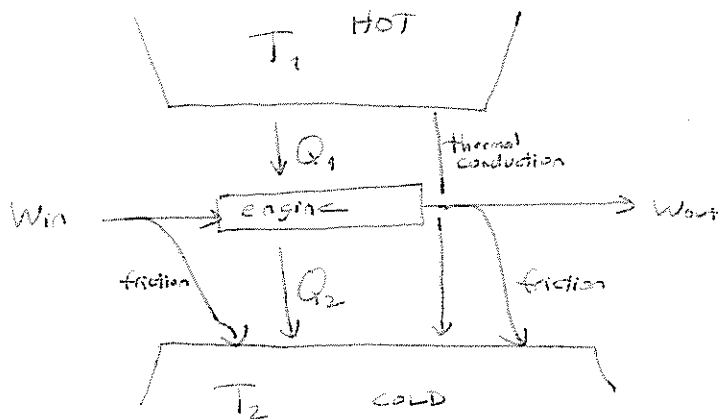
$$\Delta W \leq Q_1 - Q_1 \frac{T_2}{T_1}$$

efficiency $\eta \equiv \frac{\Delta W}{Q_1} \leq 1 - \frac{T_2}{T_1} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{T_1}$

Comments: ① If $T_1 = T_2$, net work = 0: we can't operate an engine at a single temperature

② If we could make $T_2 = 0$, we could have $Q_2 = 0$, i.e., all heat converted to work. So a zero-temperature reservoir would be very valuable.

③ What of inequalities? Irreversible processes (e.g., friction, sudden expansion) convert work \rightarrow heat uselessly:



friction, conduction add to Q_2 at the expense of W_{out}

3/5/2004

Carnot cycle for ideal gas - redraw PV from p. 88.3

Step	Process	work on gas	heat added to gas
A	isothermal compression	$-\int_{V_1}^{V_2} P dV = -\int_{V_1}^{V_2} Nk_B (T_c/V) dV$ $= +Nk_B T_c \ln V_1/V_2$	$-Nk_B T_c \ln V_1/V_2$ <small>since internal energy unchanged</small>
B	adiabatic comp.	$\frac{3}{2} Nk_B (T_h - T_c)$	—
C	isothermal expansion	$-Nk_B T_h \ln V_4/V_3$	$Nk_B T_h \ln V_4/V_3$
D	adiabatic exp.	$\frac{3}{2} Nk_B (T_c - T_h)$	—

check: 1st law ✓

$$W_{out} - W_{in} = Nk_B \left[-T_c \ln V_1/V_2 - \frac{3}{2} (T_h - T_c) + T_h \ln V_4/V_3 + \frac{3}{2} (T_h - T_c) \right]$$

$$= Nk_B \left[T_h \ln V_4/V_3 - T_c \ln V_1/V_2 \right]$$

too many diff. volumes, so try to eliminate some

(monatomic) Since $P \sim V^{-5/3}$ on an adiabat (say B),

$$\frac{P_2 V_2^{+5/3}}{Nk_B T_c/V_2} = \frac{P_3 V_3^{+5/3}}{Nk_B T_h/V_3}$$

so $T_c V_2^{2/3} = T_h V_3^{2/3}$

Similarly, $T_h V_4^{2/3} = T_c V_1^{2/3}$

$$V_4 V_1^{-1} V_2 = V_3$$

[subst. $T_c = T_h V_4^{2/3} V_1^{-2/3}$, then cube]

$$\frac{V_4}{V_3} = \frac{V_1}{V_2}$$

Short-cut: each step reversible, so $\Delta S_1 + \Delta S_2 = 0$

Thus $W_{out} - W_{in} = Nk_B (T_h - T_c) \ln (V_4/V_3)$

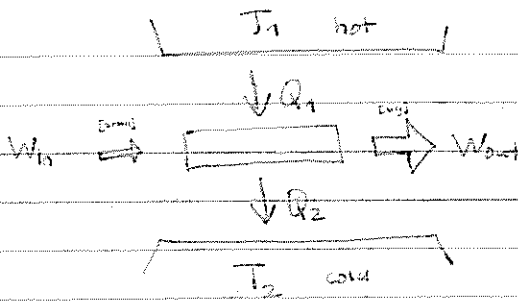
$$\frac{Q_c}{T_c} + \frac{Q_h}{T_h} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{V_4}{V_3} = \frac{V_1}{V_2}$$

heat drawn from hot reservoir (step C) = $Nk_B T_h \ln (V_4/V_3)$

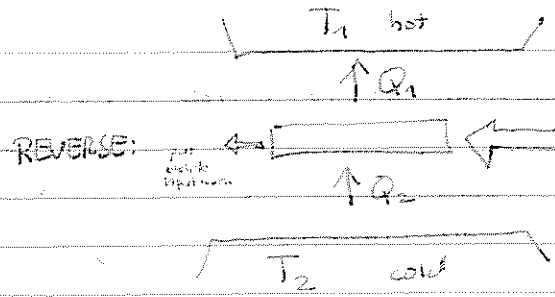
efficiency $\eta = \frac{W_{out} - W_{in}}{Q_{hot}} = \frac{T_h - T_c}{T_h}$ ✓ agrees w/ 2nd law

38.6

ENGINE



refrigerator / air conditioner / heat pump



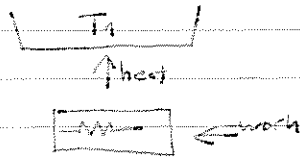
Each cycle: pay TEW

move heat from cold reservoir to hot reservoir (but not "of itself")

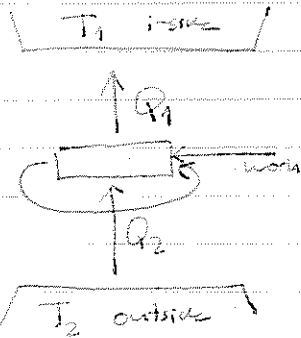
terminology:

	T_1 hot	T_2 cold	
"refrigerator"	room	food	all same device - different figures of merit: see book
"air conditioner"	outside	inside	
"heat pump"	inside	outside	

Prove a heat pump more efficient than resistive heating:

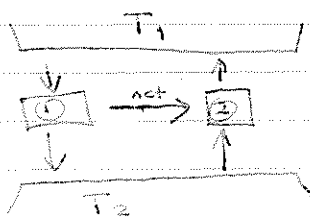


looks great: 100% of work \rightarrow heat.
How can one possibly do better?



problem 8.1

We previously derived the Carnot efficiency $\frac{\Delta W}{\Delta Q_{hot}} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{T_1}$ from just 1st & 2nd laws, and we verified the result for the ideal gas. We can equivalently argue that any two reversible engines must have same efficiency.



If engine 2 were more efficient than engine 1, we could extract work w/o any change in reservoirs. (vice versa)

Irreversible heat transfer by thermal conduction



Heat xfer $dQ = -T_1 dS_1 = T_2 dS_2$

Entropy change on left = $dS_1 = -\frac{dQ}{T_1}$

on right $dS_2 = +\frac{dQ}{T_2}$

net entropy change $dS = dQ \left(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right) = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{T_1 T_2} dQ$

- For $T_1 > T_2$, $dQ > 0$, so $dS > 0$
- For $T_1 < T_2$, $dQ < 0$, so $dS > 0$ still

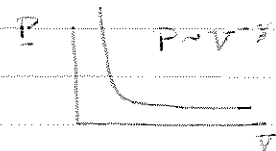
Only in limit that T_1 & T_2 differ infinitesimally, can heat be transferred reversibly.
(purely theoretical device)

also

Connect processes to natural energies

1. Adiabatic: $dU|_q = -PdV = dW$

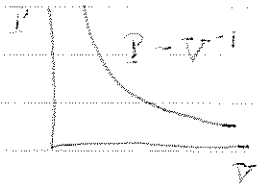
total work performed = increase in INTERNAL energy



2. Isothermal $dU|_T = TdS - PdV = TdS + dW$

$$\begin{aligned} dW|_T &= dU - TdS = dU - d(TS) \\ &= d(U - TS) \\ &= dF|_T \end{aligned}$$

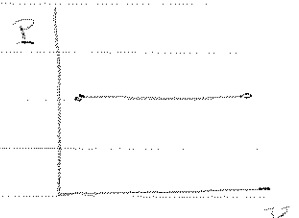
since $dT=0$



total work performed = increase in HELMHOLTZ FREE energy

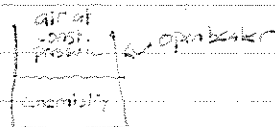
3. isobaric $dQ|_P = TdS = dU + PdV$
 $= dU + d(PV)$ since $dP=0$
 $\equiv dH|_P$

heat added = increase in ENTHALPY



where $H = U + PV$ "enthalpy"

Another way to think of it:



Other kinds of work:

$dW = -PdV + \mu dN + \text{electrical} + \dots$

not really interested in $-P dV$, since as $V \uparrow$ or \downarrow , we neither recover work nor pay for it - atmosphere supplies everything.

Thus define "effective work" $\mathcal{W}' = dW + P dV$ (subtracts $-P dV$)
 $= dW + d(PV)$ since $dP=0$
 $= dU + d(PV) - dQ$
 $= dH - dQ$ (all at const. pressure)

Define Gibbs free energy

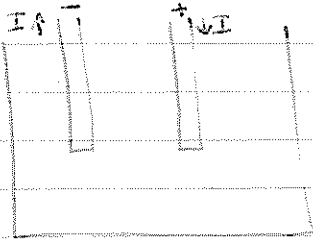
$$G = E + PV = U - TS + PV = H - TS$$

Constant P AND T:

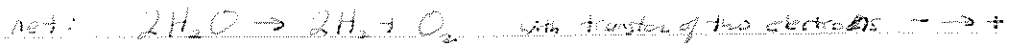
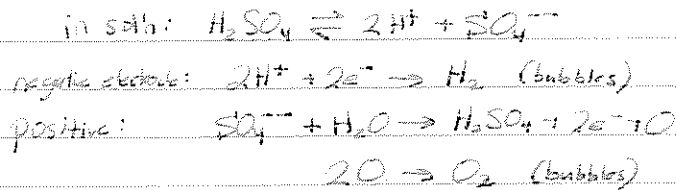
$$dG|_{T,P} = dH - T dS = dH - dQ = d\mathcal{W}'|_{T,P}$$

5th p 2007

Example from book: electrolysis



CONST. P & T



effective work (subtracts vol. change) to dissociate one mole of water:

$$W' = \Delta G = -G(H_2O) + G(H_2) + \frac{1}{2}G(O_2) = +237 \text{ kJ}$$

- = power · time
- = current · voltage · time
- = voltage · charge

charge to dissociate one mole = $2N_A \cdot (-e) = -1.93 \cdot 10^5 \text{ Coul}$

\Rightarrow voltage = 1.229v any more: emit a power \rightarrow heat (useless)
 any less: don't break down water

reverse process: fuel cell

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3/17/03 today: review, various thermodynamic potentials

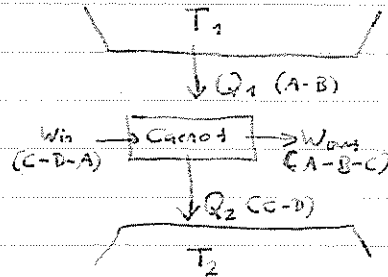
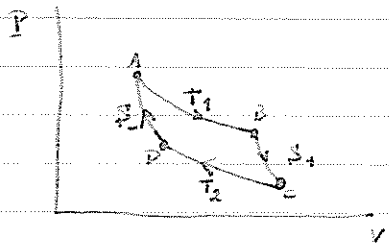
Wed: Chemistry

Su: 7
7:30-9

offer to answer questions on test, homework

Prob 17.7: For pair of temp (e.g., for Fermi, $G_V \sim T$ if $T \ll T_F$)

review of Ch. 8

Net mechanical work done in cycle = $W_{out} - W_{in}$ = net heat flow through engine = $Q_1 - Q_2$

= area enclosed

For any reversible cyclic process, $\frac{\Delta W}{\Delta Q} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{T_{\#1}}$

- doesn't depend on ideal gas, path, only on reversibility

Stanton 8.14.4

work $dW = dU - dQ$, $dQ = TdS$, so $dW = dF$ (reversible) (all work)TD defn of entropy: $dS = \frac{1}{T} dQ$; of temperature: $T_2/T_1 = Q_2/Q_1$ on isotherms

I believe Dr. Watanabe got as far as "effective work" and the example with the fuel cell.

Effective work $dW' = dW - (\text{mechanical work})$
 $= dW + PdV$ (rationale: // (energy) heateropen to atmosphere - neither
recover nor pay for work assoc.
with volume change)If $dP = dT = 0$, $dW' = dF + PdV \equiv dG$ define Gibbs free energy $G = F + PV = U - TS + PV$ [mention historical session
at 7:30 APS mtg.]

90

internal energy $dU = \text{heat} + \text{work (done on system)}$

Some types of work:

mechanical $-P dV$

chemical μdN (for ex. species, i.e., $\mu_1 dN_1 + \mu_2 dN_2 + \dots$)

magnetic:

Energy stored in field $U_m = \frac{1}{8\pi} \int B^2 dV$ (S.I. w/ μ_0 in SI units)

$$B = H + 4\pi M$$

derivation involved, not in KBK, so I'll just quote results:

$$dU \rightarrow dU + H d(MV)$$

$$dF \rightarrow dF + H d(MV)$$

$$dG \rightarrow dG - M V dH$$

all assuming uniform M .

Start here 2007

Leave off magnetic work.

$$U = U(S, N, V)$$

U assumed to be determined completely by S, N, V ("microcanonical ensemble")

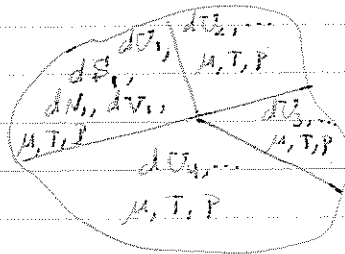
$$dU = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S}\right)_{N,V}}_T dS + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N}\right)_{S,V}}_{\mu} dN + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_{S,N}}_{-P} dV$$

$$\textcircled{1} dU = T dS + \mu dN - P dV$$

U, S, N, V extensive

μ, T, P intensive and uniform in equilibrium

Add up many little pieces:



$$\textcircled{2} U = TS + \mu N - PV$$

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We don't always have knobs for S, N, V . If instead, we control N, T, P , it's convenient to define

Gibbs ③

$$G \equiv U - TS + PV$$

= μN by ②, so μ is Gibbs free energy per particle

$$dG = dU - TdS - SdT + PdV + VdP$$

$$\text{④} \quad = \mu dN - SdT + VdP \quad \text{by ①} \quad \Rightarrow G = G(N, T, P)$$

If P, T , and N are constant (system at equilibrium), $dG = 0$.

More generally,

$$dG(N, T, P) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N}\right)_{T,P}}_{\mu} dN + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial T}\right)_{N,P}}_{-S} dT + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial P}\right)_{T,N}}_V dP$$

identifications by ④

If we control N, T , and V , define

Helmholtz

$$F \equiv U - TS$$

$$dF = dU - TdS - SdT$$

$$= \mu dN - PdV - SdT \quad \text{by ①} \quad \Rightarrow F = F(N, T, V)$$

$$dF(N, T, V) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{T,V}}_{\mu} dN + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T}\right)_{N,V}}_{-S} dT + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}\right)_{N,T}}_{-P} dV$$

If we control S, P , and N , define

Enthalpy

$$H(S, P, N) = U + PV$$

$$dH = dU + PdV + VdP \stackrel{\text{①}}{=} TdS + \mu dN + VdP \quad H = H(S, P, N)$$

$$= \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial S}\right)_{P,N}}_T dS + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial P}\right)_{S,N}}_V dP + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial N}\right)_{S,P}}_{\mu} dN$$

It can be

shown that

$$C_P = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_{N,P}$$

3/19/03 Monday: review, formalism

today: Chemistry

Friday: chemistry, maybe superfluid fountain effect

CORRECTION ON HW10

$$F(T, V, N) = U - TS \quad ; \quad dF = -SdT - PdV + \mu dN$$

$$G(T, P, N) = U - TS + PV \quad ; \quad dG = -SdT + VdP + \mu dN$$

We found $\left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N}\right)_{T,P} = \mu$ and $G = \mu N$.

However, although $\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{T,V} = \mu$, $F \neq \mu N$.

Explanation/illustration for classical monatomic ideal gas

$$\mu = k_B T \ln(n/n_Q). \quad \text{Since } n = \frac{N}{V}, \text{ and } n_Q \sim T^{3/2},$$

$$\mu = \mu(N, T, V). \quad \text{These are the variables of } F.$$

If we hold T, V constant, μ is not ind. of N .

So we can't ~~integrate~~ ^{just multiply by N} to get F . It is still intensive, since $\mu = \text{const.}$

if N, S, V scale together. However, this doesn't help us get $F = \int_0^N \mu(N', T, V) dN'$

Contrast when μ put in terms of the variables proper to G :

$$\mu = k_B T \ln\left(\frac{N}{V n_Q}\right) = k_B T \ln\left(\frac{P}{k_B T n_Q}\right) = \mu(T, P) \quad \text{no } N \text{ left}$$

Thus we can integrate:

$$\left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N}\right)_{T,P} = \mu(T, P)$$

apply \int_0^N to
both sides

$$G(N, T, P) = \mu(T, P) \int_0^N dN' = N\mu$$

(93)

Chemistry



Since the reaction can go either way, in equilibrium ($T > 0$) there will be some amount of each of the three species, A, B, and AB.

atm. P
chemistry

$$dT = dP = 0$$

so it's the Gibbs free energy we're after.

$$0 = dG(T, P, N_A, N_B, N_{AB}) = -SdT + VdP + \mu_A dN_A + \mu_B dN_B + \mu_{AB} dN_{AB}$$

$$\text{Since } dT = dP = 0,$$

$$\mu_A dN_A + \mu_B dN_B + \mu_{AB} dN_{AB} = 0$$

$$\text{also } dN_A = dN_B = -dN_{AB} \quad (\text{conservation of atoms})$$

$$\text{so } (\mu_A + \mu_B - \mu_{AB}) dN_A = 0$$

$$\mu_A + \mu_B - \mu_{AB} = 0$$

More generally, we might have other intersh coeffs., e.g.,



$$\text{or } \nu_1 A_1 + \nu_2 A_2 + \dots + \nu_i A_i = 0$$

generalization of box:

$$\sum_j \nu_j \mu_j = 0$$

i	species	ν_i
1	A	1
2	B	1
3	C	2
4	BC	-1
5	AC	-1

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If each constituent is (effectively) an ideal gas, we can use the form for μ derived at the same time as Sackur-Tetrode:

$$\mu_j = k_B T \left[\ln \left(\frac{n_j}{n_j^0} \right) - \ln z_j^{int} \right] \quad \text{where } n_j \text{ is conc. of species } j$$

$$z_j^{int} \text{ the internal partition fun.}$$

$$= k_B T \left[\ln n_j - \ln (n_j^0 z_j^{int}) \right]$$

$$0 = \sum_j \nu_j \mu_j = k_B T \sum_j \left[\nu_j \ln n_j - \nu_j \ln (n_j^0 z_j^{int}) \right]$$

$$\sum_j \ln (n_j^{\nu_j}) = \sum_j \ln ((n_j^0 z_j^{int})^{\nu_j})$$

$$\ln \prod_j n_j^{\nu_j} = \ln \prod_j (n_j^0 z_j^{int})^{\nu_j}$$

$$\prod_j n_j^{\nu_j} \equiv K(T)$$

"law of mass action"

where $K(T) = \prod_j (n_j^0 z_j^{int})^{\nu_j}$ depends on reaction $\beta(T)$, not on concentration.

$$= \prod_j n_j^{\nu_j} \exp[-\nu_j F_j^{int} / \beta] \quad \text{w/ } F_j^{int} = -k_B T \ln z_j^{int}$$

ignores behavior of part. (nuclear spins)

Example: $H_2 \rightleftharpoons 2H$

$$\text{write } n_{H_2} = [H_2] \quad \nu_{H_2} = 1$$

$$n_H = [H] \quad \nu_H = -2$$

$$\text{mass action } \Rightarrow \frac{[H_2]}{[H]^2} = K(T)$$

$$\log K(T) = \ln n_{H_2}^0 - 2 \ln n_H^0 - F_{H_2}^{int} / \beta + 2 F_H^{spin} / \beta$$

binding energy is in $F_{H_2}^{int}$: tight binding $\rightarrow F$ negative $\rightarrow K$ large \rightarrow relative $[H_2] \uparrow$

but not infinite: why isn't it H_2 in space?

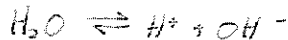
$K(T)$ absorbs this into the other

$[H]^2$ in denominator represents density for two atomic hydrogens to meet - very rare.
 Thus even if K is big, $[H_2]$ can be quite small, since $\frac{1}{[H]^2}$ is big. Most
 of the hydrogen in space is atomic.

Extreme: $T=0 \rightarrow \beta = \infty \rightarrow$ only energy (not entropy) matters
 $K \rightarrow \pm \infty$
 so all goes to H_2 in equilibrium

Whether this will actually happen as universe expands and cools would require
 a detailed calc.: although in equilibrium at $T=0$, everything is H_2 , it may
 take forever to reach that equilibrium since the atomic H will be so far apart.
 (Most "low energy" \rightarrow ground state)

Similar:



Problem
 Example 9.5: $A + \bar{A} \rightleftharpoons \text{energy}$

$$\begin{aligned} [A][\bar{A}] &= n^2 \text{ since they're equal} \\ &= K = n_0^2 e^{-2\beta F}, \quad F = \frac{1}{2}\Delta \text{ (explain)} \\ &= n_0^2 e^{-\beta\Delta} \end{aligned} \quad \text{given: } \beta\Delta = 20.$$

M_C/A differ because KBK are thinking of particle-hole, not particle-antiparticle.

Warning: M_p need not equal M_n , but in a nearly-free-electron semiconductor it might
 be close. $[A] = [\bar{A}]$ means undoped (neither n-type nor p-type).

$$n_0 = \left(\frac{M k_B T}{2\pi\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \approx 1.25 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}, \text{ so } n = n_0 e^{-\beta\Delta/2} = 5.7 \cdot 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

$$\text{(d): spin: } \lambda = \frac{n}{n_0} \rightarrow \frac{n}{n_0 z^{3/2}}, \quad z^{3/2} \approx 2, \text{ so } n_0 \rightarrow 2n_0 \\ \text{get } n \rightarrow 2n = 1.14 \cdot 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

3/21/03 Wed.: law of mass action

today: finish —

thermodynamics of superfluidity

start phase transitions

Mon.: phase transitions

$$\prod_j n_j^{v_j} = K(T) = \prod_j (n_j^0)^{v_j} \exp[-v_j F_j^{int} / \beta]$$

[make sure I didn't accidentally call K a "rate"]

Alternative derivation of law of mass action (from book)



G = rate of forward reaction

D = rate of reverse.

Ideal gas → assumption

$$\frac{dn_{AB}}{dt} = G n_A n_B - D n_{AB}$$

units of G: $\frac{cm^3}{sec}$

of D: $\frac{1}{sec}$

G & D may depend on T but not on concentration

At equilibrium $\frac{dn_{AB}}{dt} = 0$, so

$$G n_A n_B = D n_{AB}$$

"principle of detailed balance": forward = reverse

or $\frac{n_A n_B}{n_{AB}} = \frac{D}{G} = K$ law of mass action

hint

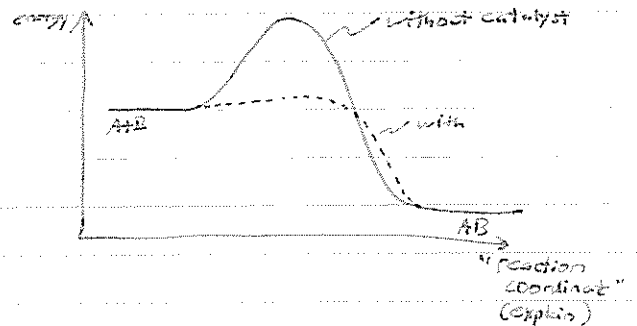
Law of mass action contains less information than the rate constants G, D above - G & D give not only equilibrium concentrations (as does K) but also rates at which reactions proceed. V.B.K suggest a catalytic process with catalyst E:



So long as these reactions proceed fast enough

that $n_{AE} \ll n_A, n_B, n_{AB}$, the equilibrium ratios must be the same as

for the uncatalyzed reaction: $K = [above]$ makes no reference to rate (like G, D) or pathway, only to energy and entropy differences.



Example 9.4:

a) By induction.

For $N=1$, we have by the law of mass action

$$\frac{[1][1]}{[2]} = K_1 \quad \text{in agreement with eq. 49.}$$

Note: but using convention opposite that on p. 269 for forward vs. backward.

Assume (49) for $N-1$, so that

$$[N] = [1]^N / (K_1 K_2 \dots K_{N-1})$$

Then

$$\frac{[N][1]}{[N+1]} = K_N$$

$$[N+1] = [1][N] / K_N \Rightarrow (49) \checkmark$$

9.10

b) $K_N = \frac{n_Q(N) n_Q(N)}{n_Q(N+1)} \exp[\beta(F_{N+1} - F_N - F_1)]$ directly from the law of mass action for $N+1 \rightleftharpoons (N+1)$

c) $\frac{[N+1]}{[N]} = [1] / K_N$, then plug in numbers

told to set $n_Q(N+1) \approx n_Q(N)$, $\Delta F = F_{N+1} - (F_N + F_1) = 0$

$$\text{then } K_N = n_Q(N) = \left(\frac{M k_B T}{2\pi \hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} M = 200 \text{ amu} = 200 \cdot 1.67 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ kg} \\ [1] = 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3} \\ T = 300 \text{ K} \end{array} \right.$$

$$= 2.76 \cdot 10^{27} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

so $\frac{[N+1]}{[N]} = [1] / K_N = 3.6 \cdot 10^{-8} \Rightarrow$ don't get large N

d) To get large N , we need

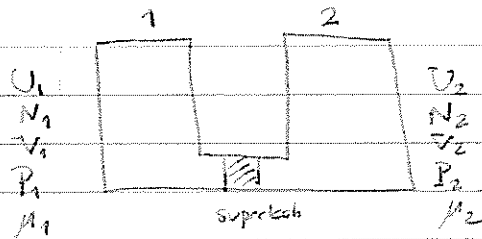
$$K_N \approx [1]$$

$$\parallel$$

$$n_Q(i) \exp[\beta \Delta F]$$

$$\Delta F \approx k_B T \ln \left(\frac{[1]}{n_Q(i)} \right) = -9.1 \cdot 10^{-13} \text{ eV} = -0.44 \text{ eV}$$

(48)



Heat side 1, then turn off - recall $T_1 \neq T_2$, $P_1 \neq P_2$ (at bottom)

What are conditions of equilibrium? Total $U = U_1 + U_2$, $V = V_1 + V_2$, and $N = N_1 + N_2$ are conserved (after heater turned off). So is total $S = S_1 + S_2$, since only the condensate flows, and it carries no entropy. Thus $dU = 0$ in any process. In particular,

$$\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N_1}\right)_{S, V, N} = 0 = \left(\frac{\partial U_1}{\partial N_1}\right)_{S_1} + \left(\frac{\partial U_2}{\partial N_1}\right)_{S_2} = \left(\frac{\partial U_1}{\partial N_1}\right)_{S_1} - \left(\frac{\partial U_2}{\partial N_2}\right)_{S_2} = \mu_1 - \mu_2$$

So chemical potentials are equal at equilibrium, as usual.

However, that's it. We cannot conclude that temps. are equal in equilibrium, because there's no thermal contact. Normally, we would do so with

$$\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_{S, V, N} = 0 = \dots \quad \text{However } dS_1 = 0 \text{ in any process.}$$

Now to relate P & T:

differential TD identity: $dU = TdS - PdV + \mu dN$ (1)

Integral " " : $U = TS - PV + \mu N$ (2)

differential of (2): $dU = TdS + SdT - PdV - VdP + \mu dN + Nd\mu$

Subtract (1) to get another differential identity:

$$0 = SdT - VdP + Nd\mu \quad (3)$$

Since equilibrium requires $\mu_1 = \mu_2$, we have $d\mu_1 = d\mu_2 = 0$. So, for side $i = 1, 2$,

$$S_i dT_i - V_i dP_i = 0$$

$$\frac{dP_i}{dT_i} = \frac{S_i}{V_i} \sim \text{all in normal component}$$

If $dT_i = 0$, as for normal fluid, we'd have $dP_i = 0$, and all three of μ, T, P would equilibrate.

Fountain effect: if T on one side goes up, so does pressure. The only way for $P \uparrow$ is for mass to flow, so it does. → since $\frac{S}{V} > 0$

Showed phase diagrams out of DeGroot to dispell two myths: 1) there are only 3 phases of water; (2) there are as many as 3 phases of water.

7/23/05

- 3/24/03 last week: chemical equilibrium
- today: phase transitions
- Clausius-Clapeyron
- Wed.: van der Waals gas

What's meant by "phase" and "transition"?

Some phases of matter:

Solid: shear modulus $\neq 0$

crystal: long-range translational order

periodic

quasiperiodic ("quasicrystal")

amorphous, glass (may be only metastable)

Fluid: no LRO, shear modulus = 0

ideal liquid: incompressible $(-V \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_{T, n} = \infty)$

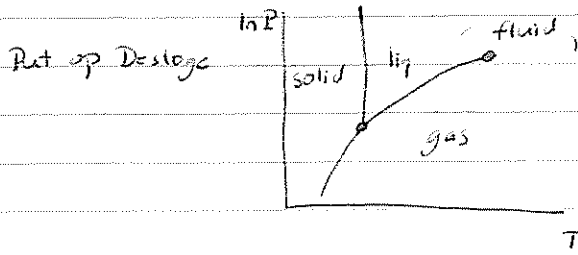
continuum

ideal gas: $PV = Nk_B T$ $(-V \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_T = nk_B T, n = N/V)$

Other phases: liquid crystals (nematic, smectic), 2dim' phases (no LRO but still have transitions), superfluids, 2DEG, viscoelasticity,

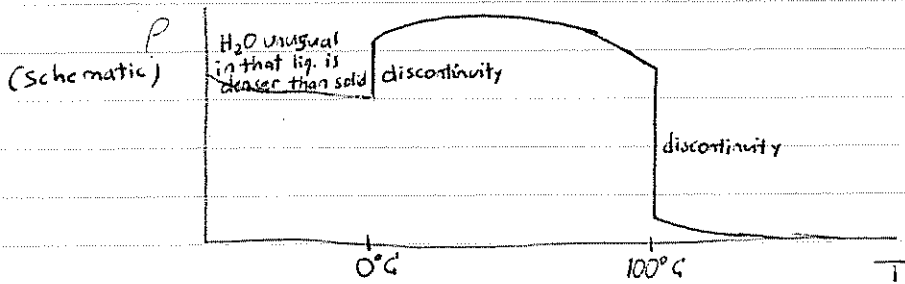
So what's changing across a phase transition?

Certainly in H_2O , density.



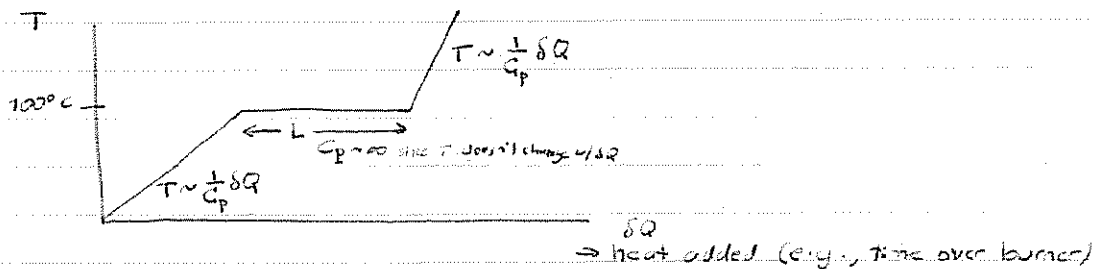
point out critical & triple points

Fix $P = 1 \text{ atm}$ (say).

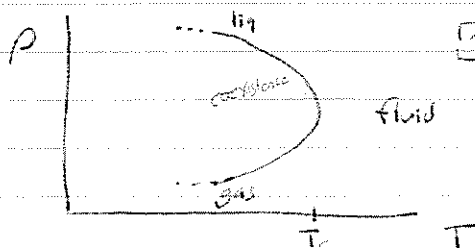


These transitions called "first order" because the 1st deriv. of free energy (with T or P) is discontinuous.

Latent heat: e.g., boiling at 1 atm



Right at critical pressure, $L=0$, but C_p still diverges: "second-order" transition (2nd deriv. of free energy is discontinuous).



PRESSURE is 3rd axis

Peculiar behavior at crit. pt.:

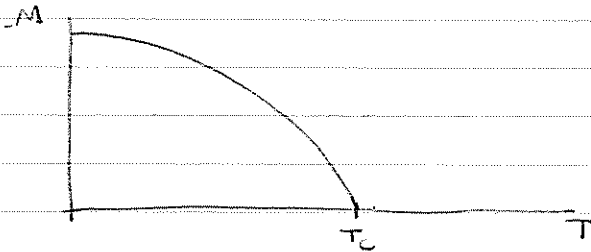
$$\lim_{T \rightarrow T_c^-} P_L - P_g = A(T_c - T)^B$$

A depends on system

$$\beta = 0.325 \pm 0.0015 \quad (\text{theory})$$

0.316 - 0.327 expts. for a large # of systems ^I (Don't know H_2O)

Magnetization of a ferromagnet (or staggered magn. of an antiferromagnet)



near T_c

$$M \sim A(T_c - T)^\beta \quad \text{same } \beta$$

$$\text{PyAlO}_3 \quad \beta = 0.311 \pm 0.005 \text{ expt.}$$

Calculating "universal" critical exponents such as β is the work of the modern theory of 2nd-order phase transitions - maybe a couple of lectures toward end of course

Coexistence line in a 1st-order phase transition (Clausius-Clapeyron)

Call the two phases l, g (liq.-gas but could be liq.-solid or solid.-gas)

Coexistence criteria:

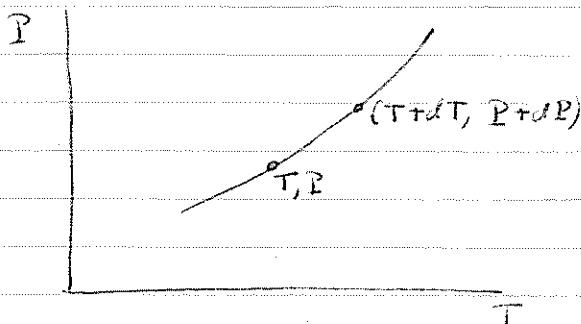
$$T_l = T_g$$

$$P_l = P_g$$

$$\mu_l = \mu_g$$

Since we control T, P , not μ , externally, write

$$\mu = \mu(T, P) = \mu_l(T, P) = \mu_g(T, P)$$



To compute coexistence curve, consider two nearby points as shown; the goal is to find $P(T)$.

$$\begin{cases} \mu_l(T, P) = \mu_g(T, P) \\ \mu_l(T+dT, P+dP) = \mu_g(T+dT, P+dP) \end{cases}$$

Taylor expand second:

$$\cancel{\mu_l(T, P)} + dT \left(\frac{\partial \mu_l(T, P)}{\partial T} \right)_P + dP \left(\frac{\partial \mu_l(T, P)}{\partial P} \right)_T = \cancel{\mu_g} + dT \left(\frac{\partial \mu_g}{\partial T} \right)_P + dP \left(\frac{\partial \mu_g}{\partial P} \right)_T$$

N_l, N_g

Assume numbers constant as we move along coexistence line. small pressure, so diff to the order
Cancel equal quantities above.

To evaluate the partial derivatives:

$$\mu = G/N, \quad N \text{ const.}, \quad \text{so} \quad \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial T} \right)_P = \frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial T} \right)_P = -\frac{S}{N} \equiv -A$$

minus entropy per particle

$$\& \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial P} \right)_T = \frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial P} \right)_T = \frac{V}{N} \equiv v \quad \text{Inverse concentration, or volume per particle}$$

so

$$-dT a_l + dP v_l = -dT a_g + dP v_g$$

$$dP(v_g - v_l) = dT(a_g - a_l)$$

$$\boxed{\left. \frac{dP}{dT} \right|_{\text{coex. line}} = \frac{a_g - a_l}{v_g - v_l} = \frac{\Delta a}{\Delta v}}$$

Δa = change in entropy as a molecule moves from gas to liq.

Δv = change in volume...

$$\text{Latent heat} = T \Delta a$$

$$\text{so} \quad \boxed{\frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{L}{T \Delta v}}$$

Clausius - Clapeyron

For the liq.-gas xition not too close to the crit. point we may make two good approximations:

$$N_g \gg N_l, \quad \text{so} \quad \Delta a \approx a_g \approx \frac{k_B T}{P} \quad \text{ideal gas.} \quad \text{Then}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{LP}{k_B T^2}}$$

If additionally, L is approx. ind. of T along the coexistence

curve, we can integrate:

$$\frac{dP}{P} = \frac{L}{k_B} \frac{dT}{T^2}$$

$$\ln P = -\frac{L}{k_B} \cdot \frac{1}{T} + \text{const.}$$

$$P(T) = P_0 \exp\left(-\frac{L}{k_B T}\right) \quad (L \text{ ind. of } T \text{ along curve})$$

Latent heat:

move one over from gas to liq: @ constant P

$$dU_g = T dS_g - P dV_g + \mu dN$$

$$dU_l = T dS_l - P dV_l + \mu dN$$

$$d(U_g + U_l) = \underbrace{T(dS_g + dS_l)}_{dL} - P(dV_g + dV_l)$$

Signs: $dS_g + dS_l$ is the total change in entropy when dN particles are moved from gas to liquid.

$$dL = d(H_g + H_l) \quad (\text{at constant } P) \quad (H \equiv U + PV)$$

$$L = \Delta H \quad \text{change in enthalpy}$$

3/26/03 Mon.: phase transitions

today: mean-field theory

Vander-Waals eqn. of state

Fri.: Landau theory

binary mixtures

Ideal gas: $PV = Nk_B T$ no phase transition (except maybe to black hole at $T=0$), so we need to replace

van der Waals: $P \rightarrow P + \text{something}$
 $V \rightarrow V - \text{something}$

Detailed interactions are necessary - example of a mean-field theory.

Simplest MFT is Curie-Weiss theory of ferromagnetism, so start there.

First, recall paramagnet (Ch. 3):

$$\mathcal{H} = -B^{\text{ext}} \sum_i \mu_i$$

Easy: every spin has exactly the same environment.

We found magnetization $M = \langle \sum_i \mu_i \rangle / V = n \mu \tanh\left(\frac{\mu B}{k_B T}\right)$
 $\langle \sum_i \mu_i \rangle = \text{spin excess} = (N_{\uparrow} - N_{\downarrow}) = N \langle \mu \rangle$

$\mu = \text{moment per spin}$
 $n = N/V$

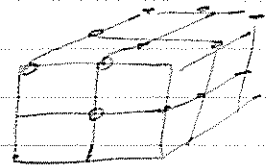
Model of a FM: no external field

hard for the same reason
 Chess, GO are hard

$$\mathcal{H} = -J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} \vec{\mu}_i \cdot \vec{\mu}_j$$

in pairs

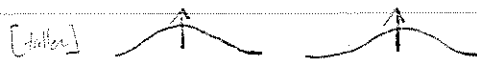
Heisenberg



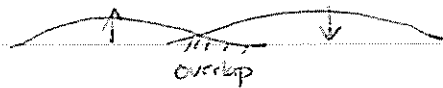
$$\text{or } \mathcal{H} = -J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} \mu_i \mu_j$$

Ising

Microscopic origin: Coulomb repulsion $\sim \frac{1}{R}$, $R = \text{typical (integrated) } e^-e^- \text{ separation}$



parallel spins: no overlap, large rep \rightarrow low energy



antiparallel: overlap \rightarrow larger Coulomb rep. \rightarrow high energy $\frac{e^2}{R}$

(Competition: $k \dots$)

Heisenberg or even Ising hard to solve for usual reason — interacting system — while $\mathcal{H} = -B^{\text{ext}} \sum_i \mu_i$ is easy. Strategy: replace hard \mathcal{H} with easy one. Instead of B^{ext} , use "effective" field B due to the averaged field contribution of all spins:

$$\mathcal{H} = -J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} \mu_i \mu_j = -J \sum_i \mu_i^2 \langle \mu \rangle + J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} \mu_i (\langle \mu \rangle - \mu_j)$$

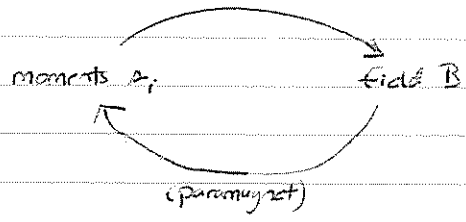
n.n. (space for one spin) fluctuation terms: throw away

$$\approx -B \sum_i \mu_i$$

plug back in from
 $M = n \mu \langle \mu \rangle$
 and n

where $B = \frac{n}{2} J \langle \mu \rangle = \lambda M$, $\lambda = \frac{3z}{4g^2}$

Solve model self-consistently:



Note: Only in the model does the spontaneous B align the other spins in a dipole-dipole interaction. In the microscopic model, this effect is very small.

we've left off geometry & fluctuations

mean-field theory

- A_i
- B
- $\langle A \rangle$

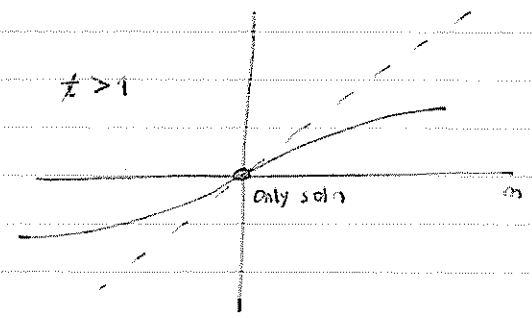
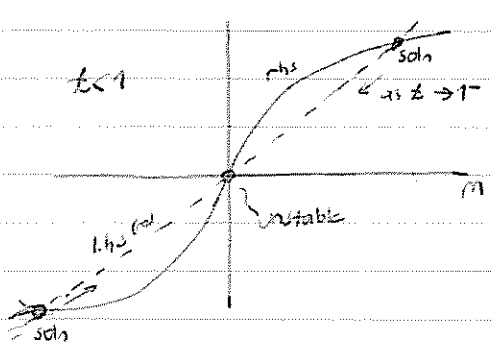
Communism

- worker
- the state
- ave. of all workers

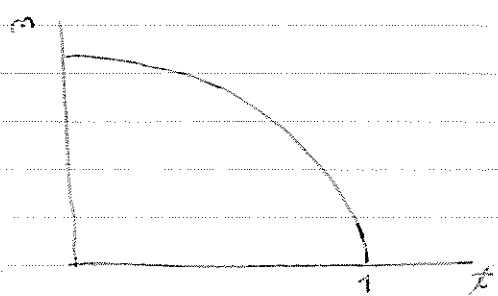
so paramag. $M = n\mu \tanh\left(\frac{\mu B}{k_B T}\right)$
 mean field $B = \lambda M$ } $\rightarrow M = n\mu \tanh\left(\frac{\mu \lambda M}{k_B T}\right)$

Introduce normalized variables $m = \frac{M}{n\mu}$, $t = \frac{\lambda n \mu^2}{k_B T}$: $m = \tanh(m/t)$

Solve graphically



$t = 1$ is critical:

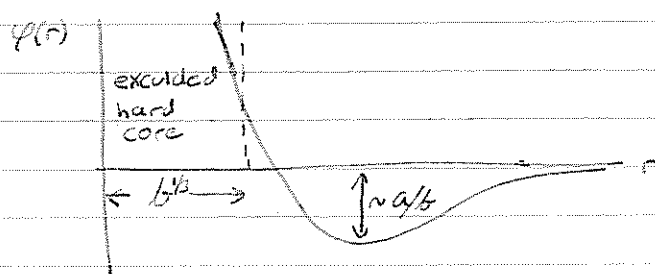


or, back to regular variables, $T_c = \frac{n\mu^2 \lambda}{k_B}$

(Curie)
 MFT: $\beta = 1/2$
 actual: $\beta \approx 0.325$

Back now to van der Waals - also a MFT

Instead of non-interacting gas, assume pair interaction



b : volume

a/b : energy

(One could derive from Lennard-Jones 6-12 potential.)
not necessary - we just need two phenomenological params, a & b

$$F_{\text{ideal}} = -Nk_B T [\ln(Nb/n) + 1]$$

First, replace $n = \frac{N}{V}$ with $n_{\text{eff}} = \frac{N}{V - Nb}$

Second, add another energy to F .

Estimate interaction energy for one atom:

$$U_1^{\text{int}} = \int_{b^3}^{\infty} d^3r n(\vec{r}) \psi(r)$$

Concentration of atoms at \vec{r} : $n(\vec{r}) = \sum_{i \neq 0} \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_i)$

Mean-field approximation: replace $n(\vec{r})$ with n so that every atom is the same:

$$U_1^{\text{int}} \approx n \int_{b^3}^{\infty} d^3r \psi(r) \equiv -2na$$

Each worker interacts only with the state, and the state is the sum of all workers.

total interaction energy for all atoms

$$U^{\text{int}} = \frac{N}{2} U_1^{\text{int}} = -\frac{N^2 a}{V}$$

Each only a worker, but the
interaction energy is shared

Add U^{int} to the modified free energy.

$$F_{vdw} = -Nk_B T \left[\ln \left(\frac{N_0(V - Nb)}{N} \right) + 1 \right] - \frac{N^2 a}{V}$$

Pressure $P = - \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V} \right)_{T,N} = \frac{Nk_B T}{V - Nb} - \frac{N^2 a}{V^2}$

$$Nk_B T = \left(P + \frac{N^2 a}{V^2} \right) (V - Nb)$$

contrast ideal $Nk_B T = PV$
 $a, b = 0 \rightarrow$ ideal gas

Scaling:

$$P_c = \frac{a}{27b^2}$$

$$V_c = 3Nb$$

$$T_c = \frac{8a}{27b}$$

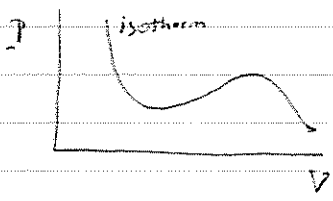
$$\left(\frac{P}{P_c} + \frac{3}{(V/V_c)^2} \right) \left(\frac{V}{V_c} - \frac{1}{3} \right) = \frac{8}{3} \frac{T}{T_c}$$

no params. left with respect to scaled variables
 $\frac{P}{P_c}$, etc.

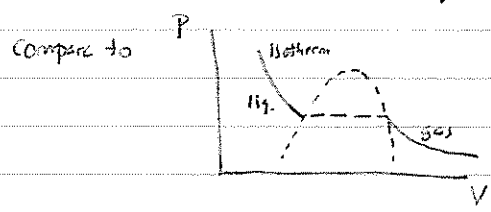
Isotherms: show fig 10.10. Above T_c , no wiggle.

Compare to expt: Ar with fit for a, b at high T gives $T_c \rightarrow -119.7^\circ C$, really $-122^\circ C$

WtK don't do a good job of explaining fig 10.10 or its horizontal dashed lines.



peculiar that $P \uparrow$ as $V \uparrow$ with N fixed
 more than peculiar: $\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V} \right)_{T,N} = -P$, so $\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V} \right)_{T,N} = - \left(\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial V^2} \right)_{T,N}$
 but this must be NEGATIVE, else F not a minimum @ (V,T,N) .



At coexistence, $P_{gas} = P_{liq}$.

vdW unphysical $P(V)$ for part of range - really indicating coexistence, but where is line?

Maxwell construction:

$$recall \ 0 = \int dT - V dP + Nd\mu$$

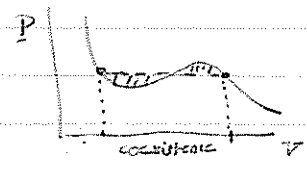
On an isotherm, $dT=0$, so

$$d\mu = \frac{V}{N} dP$$

$$\mu_{liq} - \mu_{gas} = 0 = \int_{gas}^{liq} d\mu = \frac{1}{N} \int_{gas}^{liq} V dP = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Maxwell's 'equal-areas' rule}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \left[\int_{gas}^{liq} P dV - \int_{gas}^{liq} P dV \right]$$

rectangle

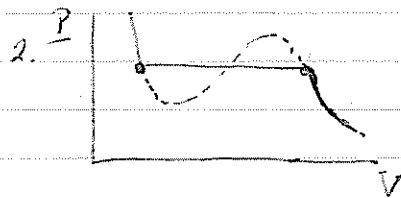
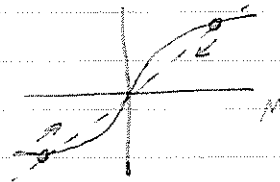
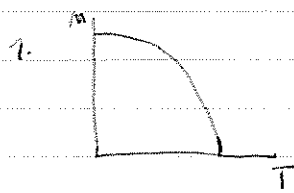


3/29/03 Wed.: mean-field theories:
Curie-Weiss ferromagnet
van der Waals

today: Landau theory
start binary mixtures

Mon.: binary mixtures

We saw two examples of how an analytic (differentiable, Taylor-expandable) func.
could describe a transition in which s.t. was not differentiable:



This suggested to Landau a general framework:

1. Identify an order parameter, ξ

e.g., M for FM

superconducting/superfluid fraction

fraction of A-B bonds in binary alloy

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int p(x) p(x+an) dx$ in solid (strictly normalized)

2. Write free energy as function of T & ξ . (allowing latter to vary):

$$F_L(\xi, T) = U(\xi, T) - TS(\xi, T)$$

3. Variational method: minimize F_L w.r.t. ξ to find equilibrium value, $\xi_0(T)$

4. Form of F_L is chosen to give the kind of transition we want:

- assumed analytic - Taylor expand about $\xi=0$

- coefficients constrained by symmetry of problem

If there's a symmetry $+\xi \leftrightarrow -\xi$, as in Ising FM, F_L is even,
and we can write

$$F_L(\xi, T) = g_0(T) + \frac{1}{2}g_2(T)\xi^2 + \frac{1}{4}g_4(T)\xi^4 + \frac{1}{6}g_6(T)\xi^6 + \dots$$

Fractions in front not important - KBK put them there in anticipation of taking a derivative. Other authors absorb them into the g_i .

If we had any other knobs (e.g., ext. field, pressure), the g_i would depend on them as well as on T .

To model a second-order transition, truncate after 4th term, set $g_0, g_4 = \text{constants}$ (at least near transition temp), and let $g_2(T)$ be a monotonically increasing function: KBK write $g_2(T) = (T - T_0)\alpha$, $\alpha > 0$.

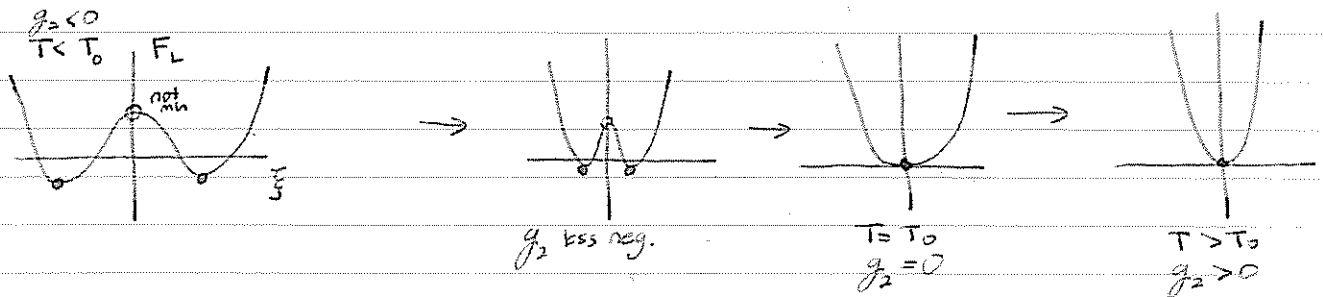
$$F_L(\xi, T) = g_0 + \frac{1}{2}g_2(T)\xi^2 + \frac{1}{4}g_4\xi^4$$

To find equilibrium $\xi = \xi_0(T)$:

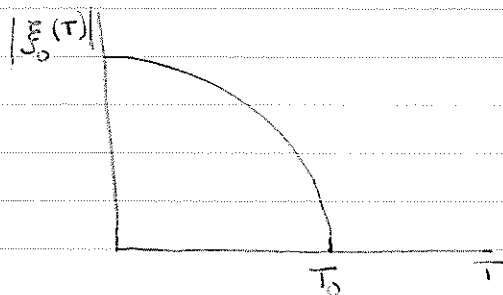
$$0 = \left(\frac{\partial F_L}{\partial \xi}\right)_T = g_2\xi + g_4\xi^3$$

$$\text{roots: } \xi = 0, \quad \xi = \pm \sqrt{-g_2/g_4} \quad (\text{real root(s) only for } g_2 < 0)$$

Successive graphs of F_L for increasing T :



This gives a 2nd-order transition:



(113)

Say we want a 1st-order transition - one way is to go to 6th order in ξ

$$F_L(\xi, T) = g_0 + \frac{1}{2}g_2(T)\xi^2 - \frac{1}{4}g_4\xi^4 + \frac{1}{6}g_6\xi^6, \quad g_4, g_6 > 0$$

$$0 = \frac{\partial F_L}{\partial \xi} = g_2(T)\xi - g_4\xi^3 + g_6\xi^5$$

$$\xi = 0$$

$$\text{or } g_2(T) - g_4\xi^2 + g_6\xi^4 = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \xi^2 = \frac{g_4 \pm \sqrt{g_4^2 - 4g_6g_2}}{2g_6}$$

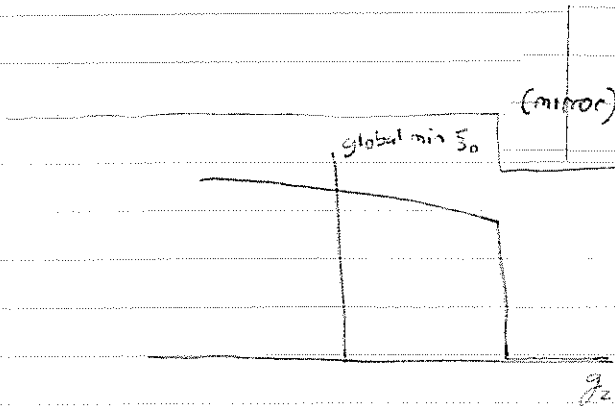
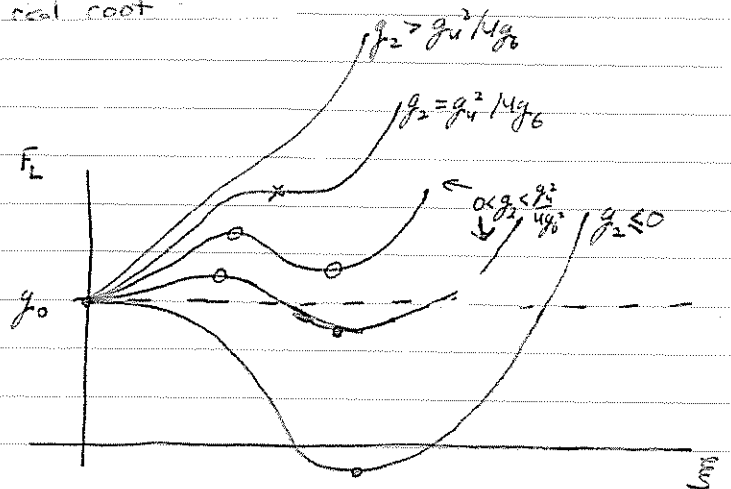
increase \downarrow
 $g_2 < 0$: $\sqrt{\cdot} > g_4$, so only + root \rightarrow real ξ

$g_2 = 0$: one (non-0) root for ξ^2

$0 < g_2 < \frac{g_4^2}{4g_6}$: two real roots - one is a max, or a min.
(but may not be global min.)

$g_2 = \frac{g_4^2}{4g_6}$: one non-0 root for ξ^2

$g_2 > \frac{g_4^2}{4g_6}$: $\xi = 0$ only real root

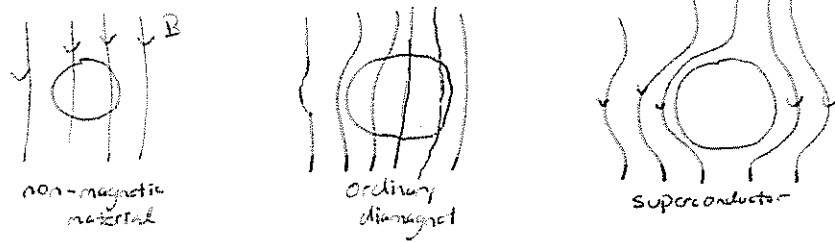


Problem 10.6

Use Gaussian units: $\mu_0 \rightarrow 4\pi$

Meissner effect: magnetic flux expelled from a type-I superconductor for external field

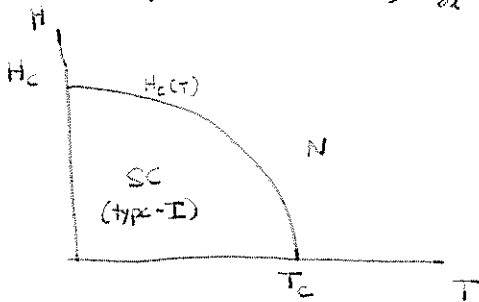
$H < H_c$ (or for type-II for $H < H_{c1}$)



Perfect diamagnetism not just a consequence of perfect conductivity, which would give, via

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

perfect cond $\Rightarrow \mathbf{E} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = 0$ is., no change in flux



large enough H destroys S.C. For $T < T_c$ and $H < H_c(T)$, S.C. has lower free energy than normal metal. At $H_c(T)$, free energies must be equal.

This gives a way to find the free-energy difference favoring S.C. at $H=0$: it's the work required to expel flux at $H=H_c$.

free-energy difference at zero field $\Delta f = \frac{1}{V} (F_S - F_N) = -\frac{H_c^2(T)}{8\pi} < 0$ (uniform H)

$$\sigma = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T}\right)_{V, N, H}$$

write $\Delta = \sigma/V$

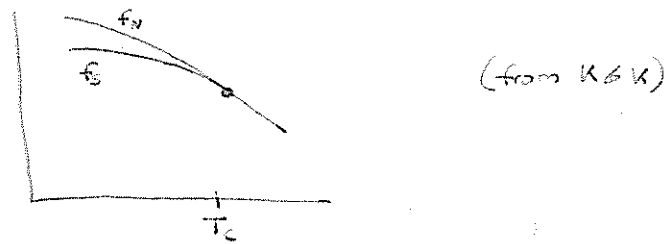
$$\Delta \Delta = -\frac{d}{dT} (\Delta f) = \frac{1}{8\pi} \frac{d(H_c^2)}{dT} = \frac{1}{4\pi} H_c(T) \frac{dH_c}{dT}$$

negative, as in graph above

3rd law: $\lim_{T \rightarrow 0} \Delta \Delta = 0$, so $\frac{dH_c}{dT} \rightarrow 0$: curve is horizontal at $T=0$

b) (i) "merge" means not only are the free energies equal at T_c , but they also approach T_c with the same slope.

$\frac{d(\Delta F)}{dT}$ is just (minus) $\Delta \rho$, which vanishes at T_c , so the free energies "merge!"



(2) Since $\Delta(T_c, 0) = 0$ and $\Delta T = 0$, $\Delta U = 0$.

(3) $\Delta(T_c, 0) = 0$ means no latent heat at T_c .

If $H \neq 0$, latent heat per unit volume $T|\Delta \rho| = \frac{T}{4\pi} H_c(T) \left| \frac{dH_c}{dT} \right|$.

7/2/00

8/11/00

(c) $\epsilon_s - \epsilon_v = \Delta \epsilon$. Use $\epsilon_v = T \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial T} \right)_{T, \mu, H}$.

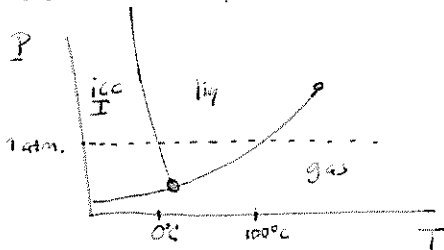
$$\Delta \epsilon = T \frac{d}{dT} \Delta \rho = \frac{T}{\beta^2} \frac{d^2(H_c^2)}{dT^2}$$

If for $T \ll T_c$, $\Delta \epsilon \approx -\epsilon_v = -\gamma T$,

$$\gamma = -\frac{1}{\beta^2} \frac{d^2(H_c^2)}{dT^2} \quad (\text{in limit } T \rightarrow 0)$$

8/11/00

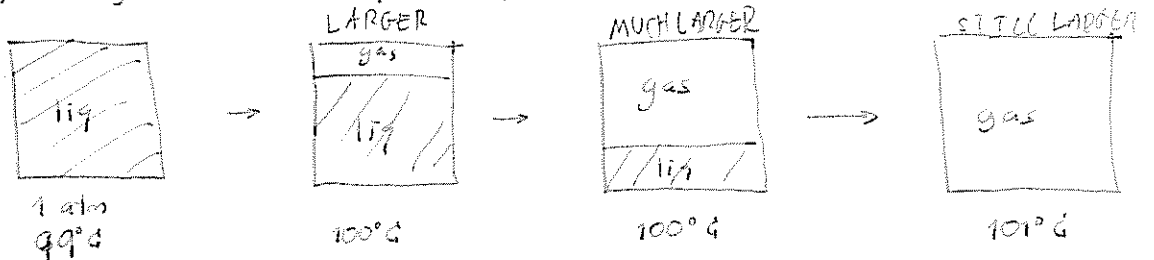
Back to H_2O .



At $P = 1 \text{ atm}$, coexistence of liquid and gas only at 100°C . - What about humidity?

This introduces two ideas: mixture (air = $N_2 + O_2 + \dots + H_2O$) & partial pressure

The phase diagram above is for pure H_2O , no air:



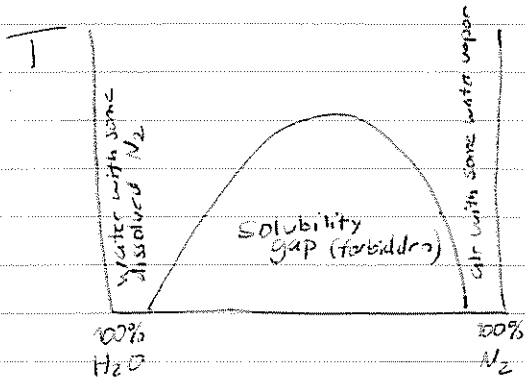
Volumes should increase progressively

whole thing is a cluster, except by a piston to maintain $P = 1 \text{ atm}$

However, with air supplying part of the pressure, the partial pressure of H_2O will be much lower \rightarrow some "boils" (evaporates) even below $100^\circ C$

equilibrium = "100% saturation" = Florida in July

interfacial energy:
Story of Chapter 11:



made up Solubility diagram of H_2O and N_2

competition between energy & entropy

3/31/03

Fri: Phase transitions

example of type I superconductor

today: binary mixtures

wed. eutectics

start cryogenics

FINISH NOTES PAGES 112-113

Vinaigrette - salad dressing

1 part vinegar (balsamic or red wine)

2 parts oil (olive or walnut)

spices (mustard seed, basil leaf, etc.)

SHAKE

what?

Simplified recipe:

oil

water

Shake \rightarrow emulsion



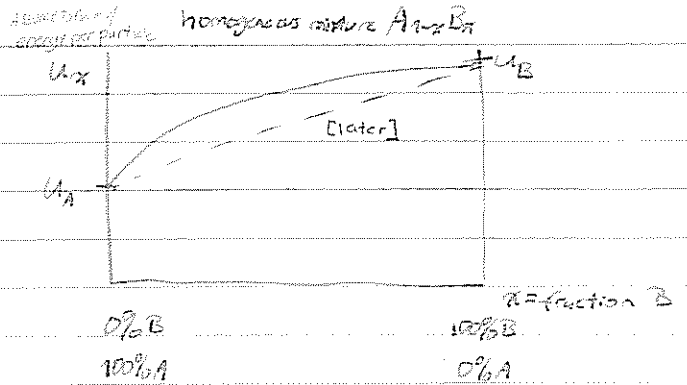
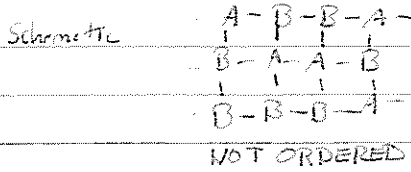
water-oil interface has higher energy than bulk water so drops get bigger with time (H_2O-H_2O dipole-dipole bond stronger than H_2O-oil).



Maximize # water-water by minimizing surface area

CONTRAST:

energy per molecule in a homogeneous mixture (much finer than solution)

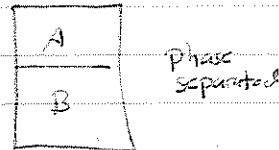


Energy of phase-separated combination:

$= (1-x)U_A + xU_B \rightarrow$ ADD DASHED LINE TO GRAPH

connect both ends
then energy phase
seps at top

Bonds leaves off interface energy from \rightarrow



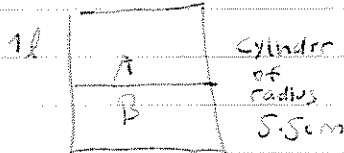
estimate magnitude compared to interface energy in 50%-50% homogeneous mixture:

in lattice, $\sim \frac{1}{2}$ all bonds are AB

total # bonds $\sim 6 \cdot \frac{N}{2} = 3N$

$N = N_A + N_B = \text{total # mol}$

replace 6 w/ max # n.o. if not NaCl structure



area $\sim 100 \text{ cm}^2$

\Rightarrow height $\sim 10 \text{ cm}$

How high is monolayer? Say $\rho \sim 1 \text{ g/cc}$ (water)

$m_{H_2O} \sim 18 \text{ amu} = 18 \left(\frac{5}{3} \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ g} \right)$
 $\sim 30 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ g}$

If cubic, lattice constant $\sim \sqrt[3]{\frac{30 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ g}}{1 \text{ g/cc}}}$ (Great 30 like 27)

$= 3 \cdot 10^{-8} \text{ cm}$

So fraction of height \sim fraction of AB bonds $\sim 3 \cdot 10^{-9}$ negligible

which is why we neglect it

Things do mix even if energetically unfavorable: ENTROPY of mixing.

A, B metals (PV negligible, so we'll minimize F instead of G)

homogeneous $A_{1-x}B_x$ or phase separation

PHASE SEPARATED first:

If A, B have same bulk structures, $S_0 = S_1 = (1-x)S_A + xS_B = S_0$ present whether phase segregated or not

Even if structures differ, the entropies will be comparable - we'll assume equal

Entropy of mixing in homogeneous mixture at:

N atoms

$$N_B = xN \text{ of type B}$$

$$N_A = (1-x)N \text{ of type A}$$

multiplicity $g = \binom{N}{N_B} = \frac{N!}{N_A! N_B!} = \frac{N!}{[(1-x)N]! [xN]!}$

$$S_M = k_B \ln g = k_B [\ln N! - \ln((1-x)N!) - \ln(xN!)]$$

$$\approx k_B [N \ln N - N - (1-x)N \ln[(1-x)N] + (1-x)N - xN \ln(xN) + xN]$$

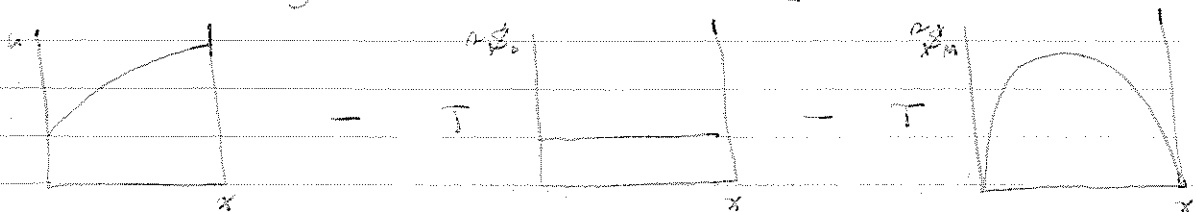
$$= k_B [N \ln N - N - (1-x)N \ln(1-x) - (1-x)N \ln N + (1-x)N - xN \ln x - xN \ln N + xN]$$

$$= Nk_B [(x-1) \ln(1-x) - x \ln x]$$

This term absent in phase-segregated configuration.

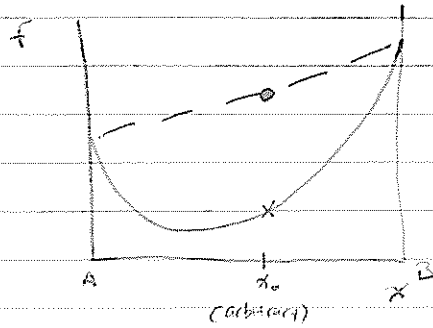
$$P_0 = S_0/N; P_M = S_M/N$$

Total free energy $f = u - T [S_0 + \frac{P_M}{x}]$



distorted ind. of x

At high enough T , f is dominated by $-T\Delta S_m$:



Homogeneous mixture (—) has lower f even though higher u than phase segregated config (---) - for any x .

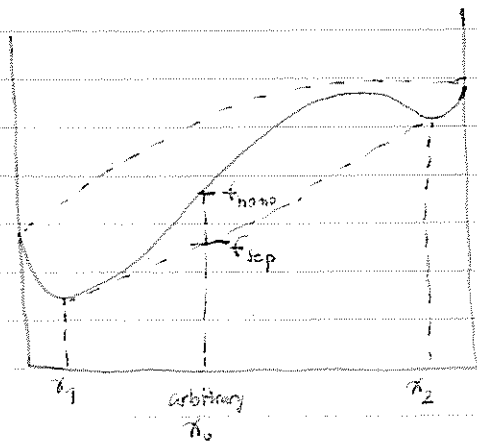
So A & B are miscible at this temp.

At low temp., S_m still important at edges because of ∞ slope:

Put the piece back! (still ∞)

$$\left. \frac{d\Delta S_m}{dx} \right|_{x=0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} -Nk_B T \frac{d}{dx} x \ln x = -\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} Nk_B T (\ln x + 1) = +\infty$$

$$\left. \frac{d\Delta S_m}{dx} \right|_{x=1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} Nk_B T \frac{d}{dx} (x-1) \ln(1-x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} Nk_B T \left[\ln(1-x) + \frac{x-1}{1-x} \right] = -\infty$$



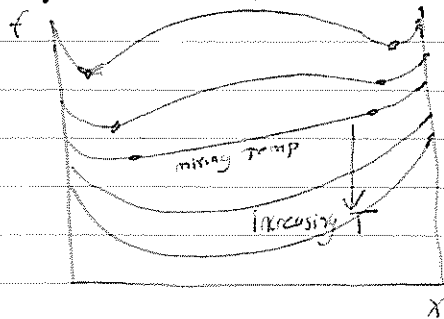
(upper) --- : not incl entropy of mixing, ΔS_m
 — : including ΔS_m

For $0 \leq x \leq x_1$, homogeneous mixture $A_{1-x}B_x$ has lowest f . Similarly for $x_2 \leq x \leq 1$. However, between x_1 & x_2 , mixture separates into two phases.

B	A-rich	$A_{1-x_1}B_{x_1}$	not pure A
	B-rich	$A_{1-x_2}B_{x_2}$	not pure B

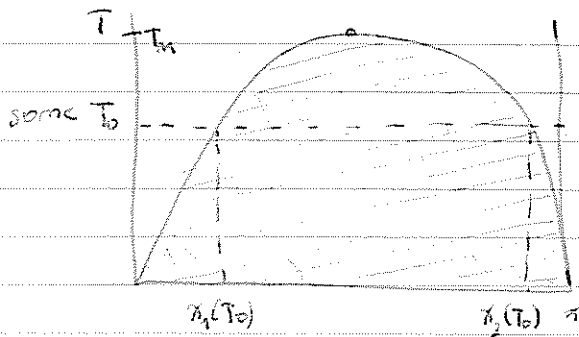
x_1 & x_2 are NOT minima, rather, tangent points

family of curves



[No phase change, but you need to meet at mixing temp.]

→ Solubility gap



no homogeneous mixtures (alloys) in forbidden region

4/2/03 Mon.: entropy of mixing
phase separation

today: phase separation
eutectics

start cryogenics

Fri.: cryogenics

[last two graphs]

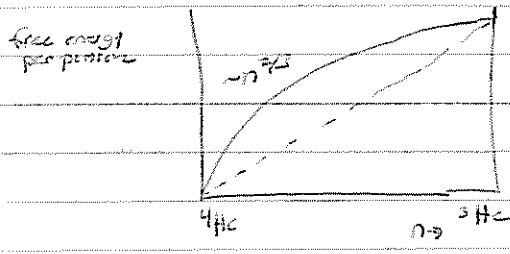
$^3\text{He} - ^4\text{He}$ mixture has similar solubility gap but for a different reason.

I don't think there's much in the way of He-He energy, much less a difference among $U_{^3\text{He}}$, $U_{^4\text{He}}$, and U_{mix} . Superfluid ^4He at low

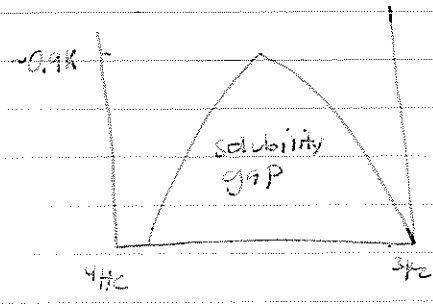
T . ($T_{\text{BEC}}^{^3\text{He}} < T \ll T_{\lambda}^{^4\text{He}}$) contributes almost no energy, so look at ^3He :

Fermi gas
$$\frac{U_0}{V} = \int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon \epsilon g(\epsilon) \sim \int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon \epsilon^{3/2} \sim \epsilon_F^{5/2}$$

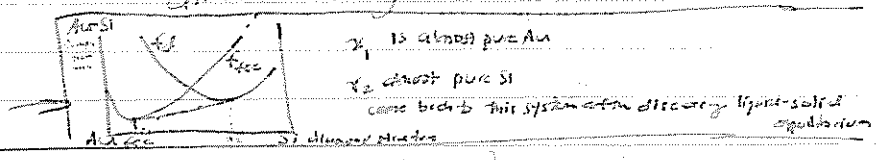
$$\epsilon_F \sim n^{2/3}, \text{ so } \frac{U_0}{V} \sim n^{5/3}, \text{ or } \frac{U_0}{N} \sim \frac{V}{N} n^{5/3} = \boxed{n^{2/3}}$$



So even without any bond energy, we still get the right curvature. Entropy-of mixing argument proceeds as normal.



Technological application for Fraker or Mander: dilution refrigerator



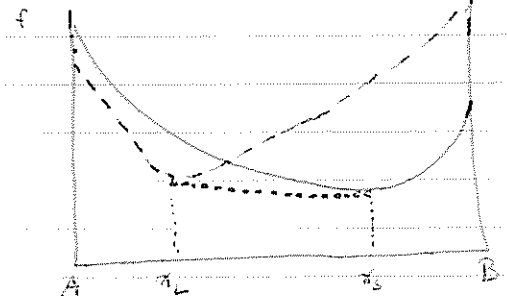
Melting of mixture with no solubility gap (e.g., Si-Ge)

assumptions for simple model:

- no solubility gap for either liquid or solid mixtures
- melting temps. $T_A < T_B$

For $T > T_B \rightarrow$ homogeneous liquid
 $T < T_A \rightarrow$ homogeneous solid

At some temperature $T_A < T < T_B$ so pure A is liquid, pure B solid:

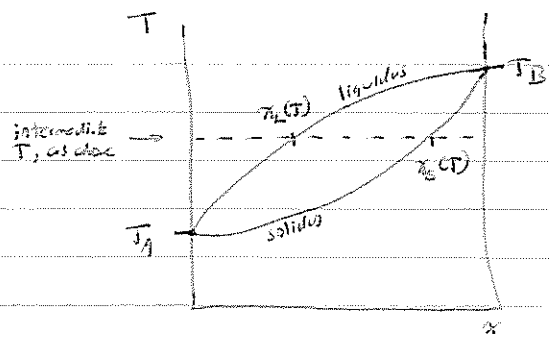


----- homogeneous liquid
 _____ homogeneous solid
 melting temperature

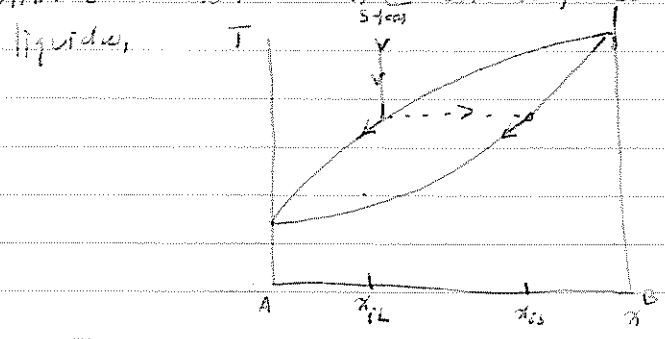
$x < x_L$: homogeneous liquid $A_{1-x} B_x$

$x > x_S$: homogeneous solid $A_{1-x} B_x$

Considering family of curves such as above,



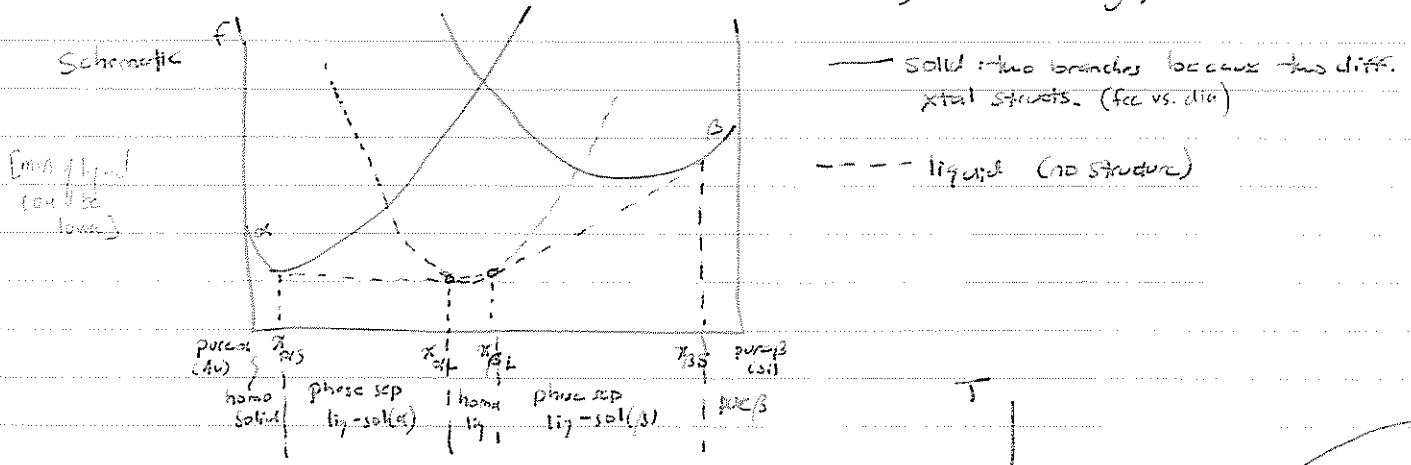
Mixture does not solidify @ one temp. but over a range: when we hit liquidus,



a precipitate forms not at x_{iL} but at x_{iS} , depleting the B component and leaving the liquid more A-rich, so it solidifies at a lower temperature, etc. Solidification is not complete until T_A .

How can a binary mixture have a melting temp. that's lower than that of either of its constituents?

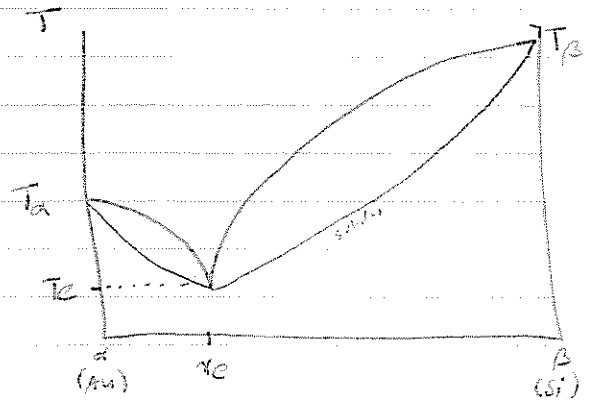
Au-Si system - differs from Si-Ge in having a solubility gap in the solid (only).



Eutectic mixture:

At T_e , x_e , $x_{SL} = x_{LS}$

If we start w/ liquid @ x_e below T_e , it solidifies suddenly at T_e (like a pure material).
At any other x_0 ($\neq 0,1$), it solidifies



over a range of temps, as in previous model. Application: solder.

4/10/03 Wed

Practical cryogenics

(Warning: it's been a while since I worked in a low-temp lab, so who knows?)

Down to (maybe) 4.2K? - closed cycle refrigerator

[of course, liquifers go further] ^{4.2K} - how cost effective?

77K: boiling pt. of liquid N₂ at room pressure
plus heater to go above

rule of thumb: liq. N₂ costs per volume same as milk

4.2K: boiling of He

rule of thumb: costs same as whiskey

can get down to ~1K by evaporative cooling called "pumping out"

maybe twice as far (to 0.5K) pumping on ³He, but very expensive, so need closed cycle

millikelvins: dilution refrigerator

below: nuclear demagnetization

(small temps) -> laser cooling (gases)

Show Jeff Olson's paper on low-T thermal conductivities (Arch. Spem)

4/4/03 Wed: cutaways
cryogenics

today: cryogenics
Joule expansion
Joule-Thomson effect
dilution refrigerator

Mon... laser cooling

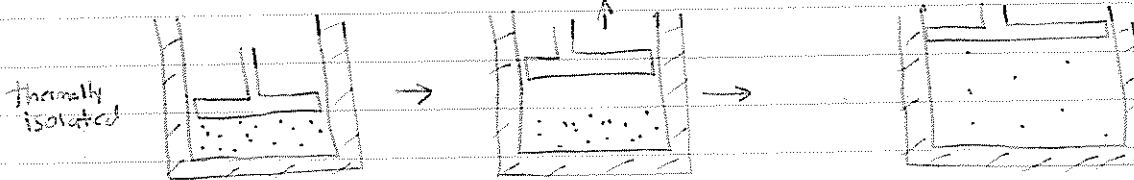
Show simplified schematic of cryostat

(some recent designs omit 1-N₂ stage)

reflective rad'n shielding
long path for tubes

Reversible refrigeration becomes difficult at low temp; particularly when the working fluid would liquify during the adiabatic-expansion stage, so for practical reasons, we're drawn to irreversible processes.

Joule effect - sudden (not isentropic) expansion, revisited



Irreversible. Recall for ideal gas, no change in temp., since $U = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T = U(T)$ only. More generally, $U = U(T, V)$.

We can still use equilibrium thermodynamics, as the initial and final states are (separately) equilibria. ~~Use~~ I.e., $U(T, V)$ is an equilibrium func. - don't care how we get from one state to another.

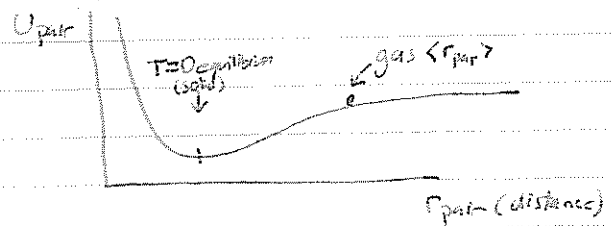
$$dU = 0 = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V dT + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T dV \quad \sim \text{indicate constant } U$$

$$\text{so } \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V}\right)_U = - \frac{(\partial U / \partial V)_T}{(\partial U / \partial T)_V}$$

$$\text{denominator: } \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V = C_V, \text{ so}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V}\right)_U = - \frac{(\partial U / \partial V)_T}{C_V}$$

- Numerator always positive for gas:



so $\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V}\right)_U < 0 \Rightarrow$ expansion COOLS an interacting gas

tip:

Evaluate numerator: recall from ch. 3 (3.50) (lecture p25, 1/24/03)

$$P = - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T + T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T$$

$$\text{so numerator } - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T = P - T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_V \quad \text{Maxwell relation}$$

$$\text{Thus } \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V} \right)_U = \frac{1}{C_V} \left[P - T \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \right)_V \right]$$

Ideal gas: $P = \frac{Nk_B T}{V}$, so $T \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \right)_V = P \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V} \right)_U = 0$ ^{why?}

non-ideal gas:

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V} \right)_U = 0 \text{ (ideal gas) - as we know before}$$

$$P = \frac{Nk_B T}{V} \left[1 + \frac{B_2(T)}{V} + \frac{B_3(T)}{V^2} + \dots \right]$$

called virial or
Kammerling-Onnes
expansion

$$B_2 = B_3 = \dots = 0 \text{ for ideal gas}$$

Can calculate $B_i(T)$ for non-ideal gases - examples: van der Waals,
Bose, Fermi

$P(T, V)$ is a Laurent rather than a Taylor expansion, because P blows
X up at $V=0$.

If $\frac{B_2}{V}$, etc. are negligible (expected at low density, $\frac{N}{V} \ll n_Q$)

$$T \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \right)_V = \frac{Nk_B T}{V} \left(1 + \frac{B_2}{V} + \frac{T}{V} \frac{dB_2}{dT} \right) = P + \frac{Nk_B T^2}{V^2} \frac{dB_2}{dT}$$

So $\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V} \right)_U = - \frac{1}{C_V} \frac{Nk_B T^2}{V^2} \frac{dB_2}{dT}$ called "Joule" effect

Similar, more useful:



equivalently, porous, resistive
partition

Again, irreversible, but now
we control pressure instead
of volume - more suitable
for a continuous process
of liquification.



$$\Delta U = U_2 - U_1 = P_2 V_2 - P_1 V_1$$

we assume no heat loss (Identify as heat for factor)

Ignore kinetic energy of fluids (center of mass)

$$U_1 + P_1 V_1 = U_2 + P_2 V_2$$

enthalpies equal $H_1 = H_2$

intuition:

$$V \leftrightarrow P$$

constant $U \rightarrow$ constant H

so guess

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P}\right)_H = -\frac{1}{C_p} \left[V - T \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \right]$$

Good guess except sign (so fix sign)

called Joule-Thomson effect (Thomson = Lord Kelvin)

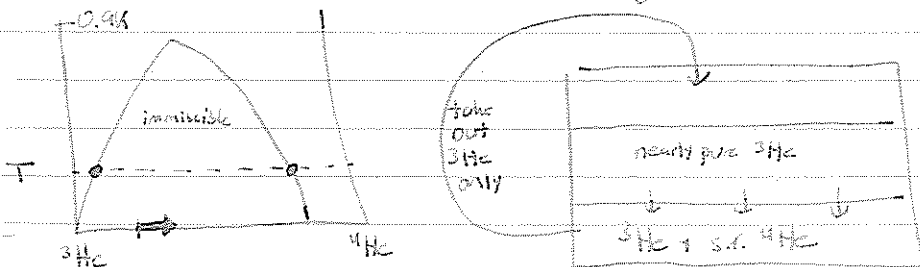
Unlike Joule expansion, sign depends on T .

For any gas, there's an inversion temperature below which this cools, above which it heats, so in liquefaction it's first necessary to cool below inversion temperature.

4/15/07

Dilution refrigerator:

fundamental idea: ^3He gives up heat faster dissolving into ^4He than evaporating into vacuum.



"evaporation" is down, not up

Historically important cooling method: Pomeranchuk effect

Used by Lee, Oshroff, Richardson in 1972 to form superfluid ^3He

review by Bob Richardson in his 1996 Nobel lecture

RMP 69 683 (1997)

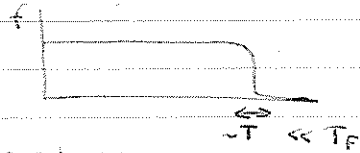
Compress solidifying ^3He



At low T, entropy of solid > entropy of liquid, so it takes heat to solidify → liquid cools

even normal ^3He a quantum liquid

so only a small proportion of states are available for entropy



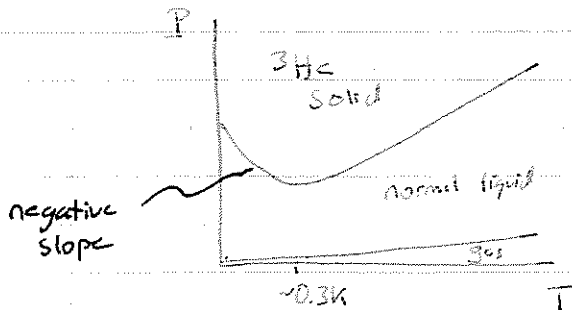
Entropy divergence of normal liquid solid 2.5K in the other direction and degree of freedom.

Clausius - Clapeyron

$$\frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{A_{liq} - A_{solid}}{V_{liq} - V_{solid}} = \frac{\text{latent heat per molecule}}{T(V_{liq} - V_{solid})}$$

negative
 positive
 small positive

so $P \uparrow \rightarrow T \downarrow$



(superfluid phase below ~2.5 mK)

superfluidity in ^3He a consequence of Cooper pairing, similar to superconductivity

refer to Oshroff's review in same issue of RMP - calling advisors at 4:00 AM (picture)

condensates:

Bosonic: ^4He - strongly interacting - superfluid Kapitza, 1938
 $T_c \sim 2.1 \text{ K}$

atomic BEC, e.g., Rb - weakly or non interacting U. Phillips says yes (probably not superfluid?)
 $T_c \sim 2 \mu\text{K}$ 1995
 (hard part is density)

paired Fermions:

usual type-I s.c. (e.g., Pb) s-wave ($l=0$) $T_c = 7.2 \text{ K}$ BCS

usual type-II s.c. (e.g., Nb_3Sn) s-wave ($l=0$) $T_c = 8.3 \text{ K}$ BCS

heavy-Fermion type II s.c. (e.g., UPt_3) s-wave? + p-wave? $T_c = 0.533 \text{ K}$?

$^3\text{He} - A$ p-wave ($l=1$) $T_c \approx 2.5 \text{ mK}$ BCS
 $^3\text{He} - B$ s.c.p. 211

high- T_c s.c. (e.g., $\text{Tl}_2\text{Ba}_2\text{Cu}_2\text{O}_{10}$) d-wave? ($l=2$) $T_c \sim 125 \text{ K}$?
 some admixture?

The "Bosons" are of course also grouped Fermions - there are theories that interpolate.

4/7/03 Fri.: dilution refrigerator

today: Condensates

last week: Brepping - can only give a flavor

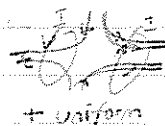
Wed.: kinetic theory

Phillips, RMP 70 721 (1998)

useful ref.: Raab et al. PRL 59 2631 (1987)

ingredients in optical cooling:

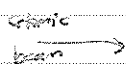
0. Magnetic trap - antihelmholtz



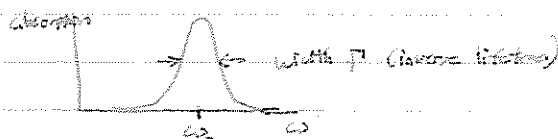
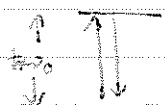
+ uniform

somehow (?) $3S_{1/2}$ state comes about
 $|B|$, not B - down to minimum @ center

1. Optical stopping



laser beam



subtleties: won't work very far because of

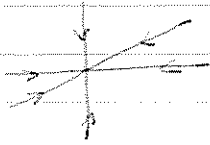
- 1) Doppler shift (explain)
- 2) hyperfine splitting of ground state

#2 dealt with by second beam to pump atoms out of unwanted level.

#1: Use spatially modulated magnetic field to cancel Doppler with Zeeman

- this just about stops the beam

2. Doppler cooling: "optical molasses"



x, y, z beams (6)

$$\omega_{laser} = \omega_0 - \delta$$

$\delta = \Gamma/2$ turns out to be optimal

Atom absorbs more strongly from beam toward which it is headed - momentum transfer slows it down regardless of direction

force on atom $F \sim -\alpha v$ (for small $v \rightarrow$ blue shift $< \delta$)

resulting velocity distribution nearly Maxwellian, so T is well defined

Doppler $\rightarrow \sim 200 \mu K$ (competition from laser heating \leftarrow random recoil)

2' sub-Doppler cooling: Stark shift in electric field $\rightarrow 50 \mu K$

modulated (circular polarized)

see Fisher

Tannoudji's

Notch technique

2'' magneto optical trap

see Raab



much stronger than magnetic trap alone

just mental

polarized light to conserve angular momentum



incorporates Doppler

3. evaporative cooling $\rightarrow 50 nK$

reduce trapping pot enough so highest-energy \rightarrow hottest \rightarrow atoms leave but cold atoms stay

discuss picture of velocity distrib'n

adiabatic demagnetization - refer to book

4/9/03 Mon: Bose-condensed atomic gases

today: example problem Ch.12

Kinetic theory

Fri: diffusion

correct misprint on HW assignment 13

Problem 12.4

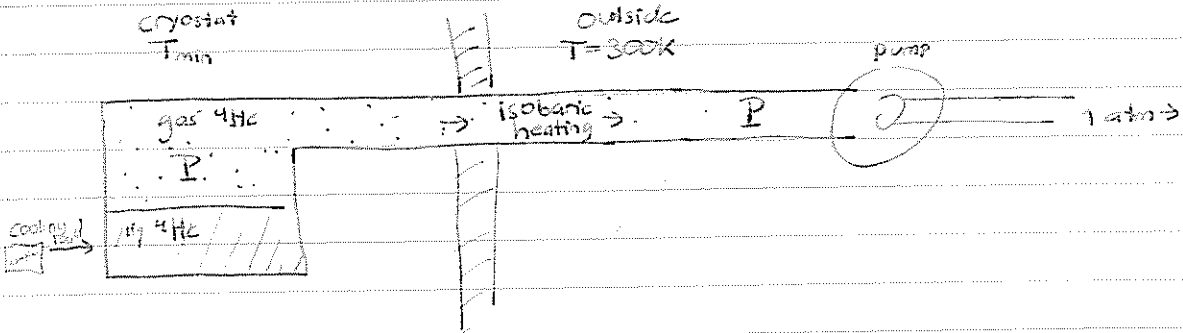
At steady state, we're removing heat at rate $q = L_0 S'$

S' = effective pump speed at interface

L_0 = latent heat per mole = 82 J/mole

table 12.1

assumed ind. of T (10^{-5} P)



Ignoring any resistance to flow, pressure same until pump (less at pump if there is resistance) - steady state same as equilibrium except for center-of-mass flow and lack of energy transfer backward

effective pump speed $S' = \frac{\# \text{ moles}}{\text{sec}}$

S' given in $\frac{\text{vol}}{\text{time}}$ - use ideal gas law to convert

$= \frac{1 \text{ mole}}{24 \text{ L}} \frac{P}{1 \text{ atm}} \approx \alpha S' P$, $\alpha = \frac{\text{mole}}{24 \text{ L} \cdot 760 \text{ torr}}$

$q = L_0 S' = L_0 \alpha S' P$

$P = \frac{q}{L_0 \alpha S'} = 0.22 \text{ torr}$

Interpolate in table 12.2 : T between 0.98 and 1.29

$0.22 = 10^{-0.65}$, so $T \approx 0.65 \cdot (0.98 \text{ K}) + 0.35 \cdot (1.29 \text{ K}) = 1.1 \text{ K}$

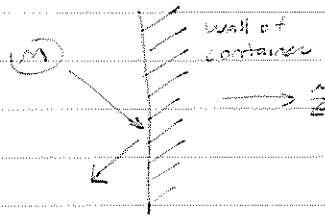
show graph of fit:
 $P(T) = P_0 \cdot e^{-L_0 / (k_B T)}$
 so
 $\ln P = \ln P_0 - \frac{L_0}{k_B T}$
 hardly differs from interpolation

Classical kinetic rederivation of ideal-gas law

Recall, first, derivation in Ch. 3 & 6 - outline

1. Quantum concentration n_Q - set by assuming negligible occupancy $\gg 1$, so we never ran out of either Fermi or Bose - "I have some marbles - how many ways are there to put them in boxes?" same as "I have some boxes - what occupation numbers are possible?"
2. Non-interacting gas: $Z = n_Q^N$
3. $\lambda = n/n_Q$ (fugacity)
4. $\mu = k_B T \ln(n/n_Q)$
5. $\mu = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial N}\right)_{T,V} \stackrel{\text{thermo}}{\Rightarrow} F = Nk_B T [\ln(n/n_Q) - 1]$
6. $P = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}\right)_{T,N} = \frac{Nk_B T}{V}$

Kinetic theory - classical way of getting pressure -

momentum change of wall due to one collision = $2M|v_x|$

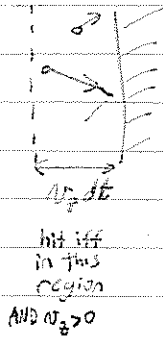
There are many collisions. Let p (or $\frac{1}{2}Mv_x^2$) be prob. for a particle to have velocity between v_x and $v_x + dv_x$.

 n = concentration
 $n p(v_x) dv_x$ = # particles per unit volume w/ v_x between v_x and $v_x + dv_x$

$$\text{force} = \frac{\text{mom. change}}{\text{unit time}} = \frac{\# \text{ that hit wall}}{\text{unit time}} \cdot 2M|v_x| \quad \text{of course, will need to integrate over } v_x$$

$$\text{pressure} = \frac{\text{force}}{\text{unit area}} = \frac{\# \text{ hit}}{\text{area} \cdot \text{time}} \cdot 2M|v_x|$$

So how many will hit wall in time dt ? First, consider only particles with v_x between v_x and $v_x + dv_x$.



$$\frac{\# \text{ hit}}{\text{unit area time}} = n p(v_x) dv_x v_x dt$$

divide by dt to get $\frac{\# \text{ hit}}{\text{unit area time}}$

$$\rightarrow \text{pressure due to } v_x = 2Mn v_x^2 p(v_x) dv_x$$

Now integrate over all v_x : ^{positive}

$$P = \int_0^{\infty} 2Mn v_x^2 p(v_x) dv_x = Mn \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v_x^2 p(v_x) dv_x \quad \text{since } v_x \text{ as likely as } -v_x$$

$$= Mn \langle v_x^2 \rangle$$

$$\text{ave. energy per particle } \frac{U}{N} = \frac{1}{2} M \langle v^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} M \langle v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2 \rangle$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} M \langle v_x^2 \rangle \quad \text{one direction as good as another}$$

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{N}{V} \cdot \frac{U}{N} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{V} \quad \text{If we assume equipartition, } U = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T,$$

we have
$$P = \frac{N k_B T}{V}$$

Flow v/mos

We've checked, since thus far our discussion of equipartition has been quantum-mechanical. Outline of partly classical argument (see Feynman, vol II):

1. TD def'n of temp. by heat engines
2. When two gases can exch. energy, kinetic energy ^{of molecules} of the two species equal: $\langle KE_1 \rangle = \langle KE_2 \rangle$
3. Define $T \propto \langle KE \rangle$
4. Show equivalence of definition #3 & def'n #1.

4/13/07

Maxwell's velocity distribution

only QM input will be that accessible states are distributed uniformly in momentum, \vec{p} .


We're essentially doing the reverse of what we did to derive $g(E)$ (but hiding the quantization of $\hbar k$).

$$P(p_x, p_y, p_z) = \text{prob. density particle has momentum between } p_x \text{ and } p_x + dp_x, p_y \text{ and } p_y + dp_y, p_z \text{ and } p_z + dp_z$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\beta(p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2)/(2m)}}{\int dp_x dp_y dp_z e^{-\beta(p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2)/(2m)}}$$

$$\text{denom} = \left(\int dp_x e^{-\beta p_x^2/(2m)} \right)^3 = (2\pi m k_B T)^{3/2}$$

$$\text{so } P dp_x dp_y dp_z = \frac{e^{-\beta p^2/(2m)}}{(2\pi m k_B T)^{3/2}} dp_x dp_y dp_z \quad P^2 = p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2$$

fraction of states between p & $p + dp \sim p^2$ 

$$P dp = \frac{e^{-\beta p^2/(2m)} 4\pi p^2 dp}{(2\pi m k_B T)^{3/2}} = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}mv^2} 4\pi m^2 v^2 dv}{(2\pi m k_B T)^{3/2}}$$

Should be called "Maxwell speed distribution" - equivalent distribution of velocities, \vec{v} , is just ordinary Gaussian.

$$= 4\pi e^{-\frac{1}{2}mv^2} \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} v^2 dv \quad \text{agrees w/ K&K 14.11}$$

Why no \hbar in this deriv as in K&K?

We've hidden $g(E)$ in the assumption that states uniform in p^2 ($E \propto k^2$) space - we don't have to count them, because they cancel

Applications: $\sqrt{\langle v^2 \rangle} = \sqrt{\int dv v^2 P(v)} = \sqrt{\frac{3k_B T}{m}}$ problem 14.1

Note that $\langle v \rangle$, $\sqrt{\langle v^2 \rangle}$, and v_{mp} (most probable) are all different. $\langle v \rangle = 0$, of course, is still different.

Alternative derivation:

$$P_E(E)g(E)dE = \overset{\text{quantum stuff}}{\alpha} e^{-\beta E} \underbrace{E^{1/2}}_{\sqrt{2}v} \underbrace{dE}_{mvdv} = P_v(v)dv$$

$$\text{so } P_v(v) \overset{dv}{=} \alpha e^{-\beta E} m^{3/2} 2^{-1/2} v^2 dv$$

\propto ind. of v . get it by requiring normalization

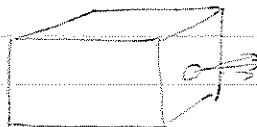
4/11/03 wed.: $PV = Nk_B T$

Maxwell velo. dist $\sim v^2 e^{-\frac{1}{2}mv^2}$

today: diffusion

Mon. Fri.: Boltzmann equation

Exp't verification of Maxwell velo. distribution:



W&K point out that there's an extra factor of v for particles that actually escape, so $P \propto v^3 e^{-\frac{1}{2}mv^2}$

Mean free path:

transporting: molecules move ballistically until they collide; afterward, directions are random

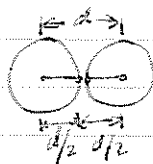
mean free path l : average distance between collisions;

$$l = \bar{c} t_0$$

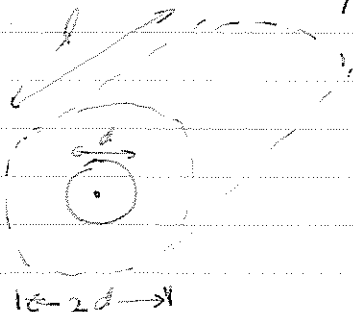
\bar{c} = average speed (7 km/s?)

t_0 = relaxation time (or mean free time)

Rigid-sphere model:



collide if they're within d of each other



Moving molecule sweeps out path of volume $\pi d^2 l$ in sense that it will collide w/ any other molecule whose center is in this volume.

Want on avg. 1 other molecule in this volume for l to be m.f.p.

concentration $n = \frac{N}{V} \approx \frac{1}{\pi d^2 l}$

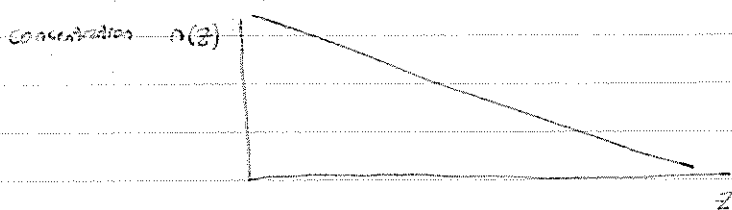
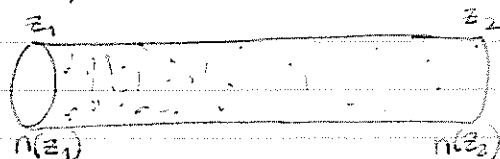
$$l = \frac{1}{n \pi d^2}$$

linear response: response of dissipative system is linear in some gradient

some examples (table 14.2)

field	response
temp T	heat flux $\vec{J}_q = -\kappa \nabla T$
elec. pot V	current density $\vec{J} = -\sigma \nabla V = \sigma \vec{E}$ (Ohm's law)
particle conc. n	number flux $\vec{J}_n = -D \nabla n$

Start with particle diffusion.



Assume T same on both sides so that avg. KE and so speed of particles ind. of z .

Field	$\vec{J}_n = -D \nabla n$	Units: $n: \text{cm}^{-3}$	∇n points left
		$J_n: \text{s}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$	
		$D: \text{cm}^2/\text{s}$	

Rationalization:

no constant term because $n=0 \Rightarrow$ no flux

no n, n^2, \dots because no difference in $n \Rightarrow$ no net flux

∇n makes sense because it measures difference in n .

no $\nabla^2 n$, etc. because "less" $\nabla^2 n$ would tell us about second propagation - distinguishes local and nonlocal mass:

no $(\nabla n)^2, (\nabla n)^3, \dots$ etc. - small for small ∇n , and also nonlinear. we expect no flux in other cases

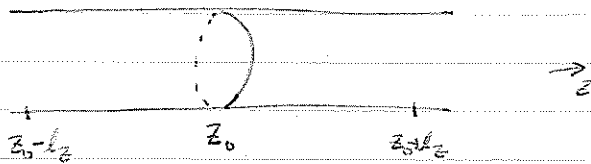
$\rightarrow n \nabla n$: quadratic in n - implausible

we expect $J \propto n$: double the density, double the flux

This leaves Fick's law.

Obtaining "WKB"

Calculations will put this on firmer ground and also estimate D in terms of Maxwell v.c. distribution & frequency of collisions.



flux through plane = right-moving flux - left-moving flux

right flux: proportional to • density n

- and to a mean speed c_z in z direction
- factor of $\frac{1}{2}$ because only $\frac{1}{2}$ of particles move to right
- what is c_z ? Avc z proj. of velo. only of those particles that move to the right
- where is density n ? Not at $z = z_0$ but to the left of it by l_z , z proj. of MFP, since density there determines flux at z_0 .

l_z & c_z are correlated, so it does not make sense to use the value of \bar{c}_z derived in problem 14.1
 $= \langle c_z \rangle$

i.e., $\langle l_z \rangle \langle c_z \rangle \neq \langle l_z c_z \rangle$. We'll need the latter.

For now leave l_z & c_z . We'll take the average later.

Right flux $= \langle \frac{1}{2} n(z-l_z) c_z \rangle$

left flux $= \langle \frac{1}{2} n(z+l_z) c_z \rangle$

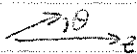
total flux $J_n = \langle \frac{1}{2} c_z [n(z-l_z) - n(z+l_z)] \rangle = \frac{2l_z}{2l_z} \dots$

\downarrow
 $-\frac{dn}{dz}$ if $l_z \ll$ length scale of interest

$J_n = - \langle c_z l_z \rangle \frac{dn}{dz}$

ave. is over only forward directions; we've already counted left as -right

$c_z = |v| \cos \theta$



\rightarrow result is $-l\bar{c}^2$

$l_z = l_0 |v| \cos \theta$

$l_0 =$ selection time $= \frac{l}{|v|}$ $l = \langle r \rangle$, $\bar{c} = \langle |v| \rangle$

$\langle c_z l_z \rangle = \frac{l}{|v|} \left\langle \frac{2\pi \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin \theta d\theta (|v| \cos \theta)^2 \int_{\text{MFP}}}{2\pi \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin \theta d\theta} \right\rangle_{\text{Maxwell}}$

$\langle \dots \rangle_{\text{Maxwell}} = \int_0^{\infty} dv \dots P(v)$

Angular & Maxwell averages separate: $\langle |v| \rangle_{\text{Maxwell}} = \bar{c}$, so

$$\langle c_z^2 \rangle = \bar{c} \frac{\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin\theta \cos^2\theta d\theta d\phi}{\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin\theta d\theta d\phi} = -\bar{c} \frac{1}{3} \cos^3\theta \Big|_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{1}{3} \bar{c}^2$$

$$J_n = -\frac{1}{3} \bar{c} l \frac{dn}{dz} \equiv -D \frac{dn}{dz}$$

so $D = \frac{1}{3} \bar{c} l$ in kinetic model

More generally, $J = -D \nabla n$

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot J$$

explain - continuity eqn. - apply Gauss's theorem

$$= D \nabla^2 n$$

diffusion equation

contrast wave eqn., which has 2nd time derivative

Similar for thermal diffusion:

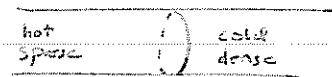
$n(z) \rightarrow p_e(z)$ energy density (i.e., erg/cm³)

For solid, energy would be carried by phonons.

Assume instead a gas with densities balanced

so that there's no net flow of particles, only of

energy (more complicated if both particles & heat diffuse)



To simplify expressions, use $n^+ = n(z+l_2)$, $n^- = n(z-l_2)$, $c_z^+ = c(z+l_2)$, etc.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Energy flux to right} &= \frac{1}{2} n^- c_z^- \cdot \frac{3}{2} k_B T^- \\ \text{to left} &= \frac{1}{2} n^+ c_z^+ \cdot \frac{3}{2} k_B T^+ \end{aligned}$$

I've assumed a near-ideal gas (monatomic) - never truly ideal, because w/o collisions there's no energy transport

$$\begin{aligned} \text{particle flux to right} &= \frac{1}{2} n^- c_z^- \\ \text{to left} &= \frac{1}{2} n^+ c_z^+ \end{aligned}$$

} sum = 0, so work $n^- c_z^- = n^+ c_z^+ = n c_z$

$$\text{Net energy flux } J_u = \frac{1}{2} n c_z \cdot \frac{3}{2} k_B (T^- - T^+) = -n c_z l_2 \frac{3}{2} k_B \frac{dT}{dz} \quad \text{Use } c_z l_2 \approx \frac{1}{3} \bar{c} l$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} n k_B \bar{c} l \frac{dT}{dz}, \text{ so}$$

$$J_u = -K \frac{dT}{dz}$$

with $K = \frac{1}{2} n k_B \bar{c} l = \frac{1}{3} c_v \bar{c} l$ where $c_v = \frac{dU}{dT} = \frac{3}{2} n k_B$

4/14/03 Fri. diffusion

today: diffusion

Boltzmann eqn.

wed.: modern critical phenomena

From Fri.: $J_u = -K \nabla T$, $K = \frac{1}{2} n k_B \bar{c} l = \frac{1}{2} c_v \bar{c} l$, $c_v = \frac{5}{2} \frac{Q}{V}$, $Z = \langle |v| \rangle$

How does K depend on concentration (equiv. on pressure)?

$$c_v \sim n$$

$$l \sim 1/n$$

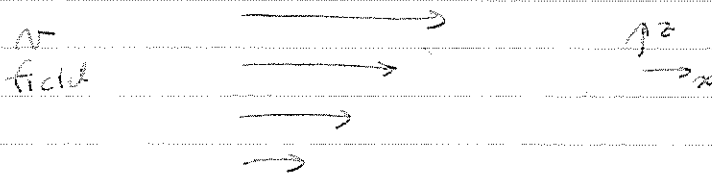
result from Fri.

So K ind. of n (or at fixed T of P)

partial vacuum conducts heat exactly as well as room-pressure air: fewer particles to carry heat, but each one moves further before scattering. Effects cancel. This picture breaks down only when $l \sim$ physical dimensions \sim mean free path. Then $K \approx \frac{1}{2} c_v \bar{c} l_{\max}$. As we lower pressure further, l_{\max} doesn't increase (how could it?), but c_v gets smaller — "Knudsen regime."

4/15

VISCOSITY:



Friction carries a momentum in the $-z$ direction (explain).

$$\frac{J_z^E}{P_x} = -\eta \frac{dv_x}{dz}$$


For a more general treatment, (3-dim flow, non-), see LGL Fluid Mechanics.

Result from KBK for gas: $\eta = \frac{1}{3} \rho \bar{c} l$, $\rho =$ mass density

[Away from equilibrium:]

Boltzmann eqn. (really strategy more than eqn.)

- concerns distribution function in single-particle, semiclassical phase space, $f = f(\vec{r}, \vec{p}, t)$ $t = \text{time}$
and its equilibrium value $f_0(\vec{r}, \vec{p})$

Particles have trajectory in 6-dim space. (1-dim analogue: )

- In words:

(Ph.s.) f changes due to (Ph.s.) the things that change f

- model: relaxation time τ_0 (τ_0 in K.B.K, but I call it τ_0 last week)

- two sorts of things changing:

- 1. particle moves in phase space: $\vec{r} = \vec{r}(t), \vec{p} = \vec{p}(t)$
- 2. $f(\vec{r}, \vec{p}, t)$ may itself depend on t .
Think of driving around on landscape in which hills, valleys, etc. change fast

Starting point:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{collisions}} + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{Flow}} + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{forces}} \quad \leftarrow \text{everything else}$$

note: 1) subscripts here are not time $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{coll}}$ but are still essential
 2) l.h.s. represents change in f at fixed point \vec{r}, \vec{p} in phase space - we could call it $\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_{\vec{r}, \vec{p}}$. In fluid dynamics, $\frac{df}{dt}$ (full derivative) is reserved for the value of $f(\vec{r}(t), \vec{p}(t), t)$ following some particle in the fluid.

First, the collision term.

Relaxation-time approximation: fraction scattering in time dt is $\frac{dt}{\tau_0}$
scattering erases memory of \vec{p}

To compute fraction scattering in a non-infinitesimal time t , write $t = N\delta t$ and take limit $\delta t \rightarrow 0, N \rightarrow \infty$, preserving t .

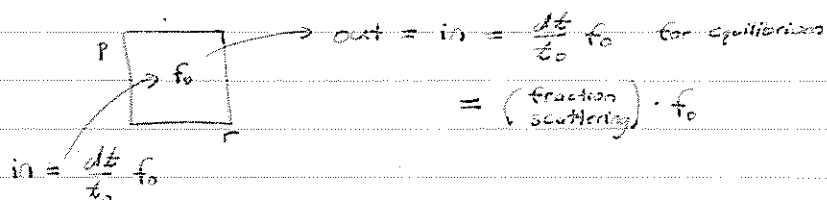
Fraction not scattered in time δt is (in limit) $1 - \frac{\delta t}{t_0}$.

Fraction not scattered in time t is

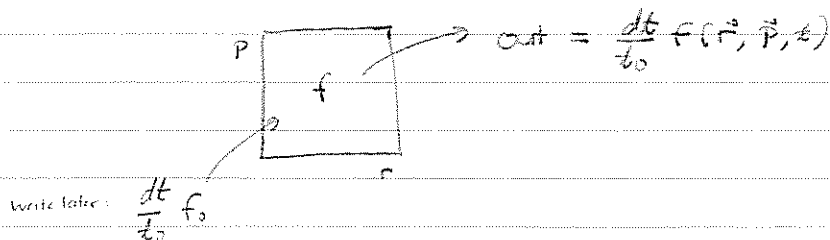
$$\begin{aligned} & \left(1 - \frac{\delta t}{t_0}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\delta t}{t_0}\right) \dots \left(1 - \frac{\delta t}{t_0}\right) && \text{For simplicity, we've assumed } t_0 \text{ ind. of } t. \\ & = \left(1 - \frac{\delta t}{t_0}\right)^N \underset{\text{lim}}{=} e^{-t/t_0} && \text{(eg. by Taylor series)} \end{aligned}$$

What?

Consider first a small piece of phase space at equilibrium:



Now consider non-equilibrium distribution:



Relaxation-time approximation says that collisions erase memory of previous non-equilibrium distribution, so incoming is again $\frac{dt}{t_0} f_0$ (DRAW).

$$\text{Net: } \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{coll}} = \frac{1}{t_0} (f_0 - f)$$

f relaxes exponentially toward f_0 in absence of other terms!

$$\text{Write } \eta(r, p, t) = f(r, p, t) - f_0(r, p)$$

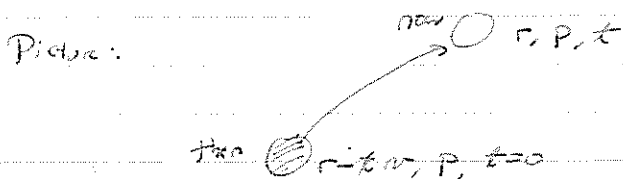
$$\left(\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{coll}} = -\frac{1}{t_0} \eta$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta(t) = \eta(0) e^{-t/t_0}$$

Flow term. Absent collisions and fields, particle moves with constant \vec{p}
(Corpus omne perseverare in statu ... h.c.)

$$f(r, p, t) = f(\vec{r}_p - t\vec{v}, \vec{p}, t=0)$$

In words: to figure out what's going on at r, p at time t , look back at $r - vt, p$ at time 0.



Note: $\vec{v} = \vec{p}/m$.

~~Final term: Let \vec{F} be force due to external field.~~

Take time derivative.

$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{flow}} = - \frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{r}} \cdot \vec{v} = - (\nabla_r f) \cdot \vec{v}$$

The minus sign is confusing - those who've studied fluid dynamics recognize it as the convective derivative.

Final term: Let \vec{F} be force due to external field (e.g., $\vec{F} = q\vec{E}$).

Newton's second law: $\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$

\vec{F} changes \vec{p} and only indirectly affects \vec{r}

$$f(r, p, t) = f\left(r, p - t \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}, 0\right) + \text{non-field terms}$$

Pick t small enough that $\frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$ constant between 0 and t .

$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{fields}} = - \frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{p}} \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = - (\nabla_p f) \cdot \vec{F}$$

Putting together the 3 terms:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (f_0 - f) - (\nabla_r f) \cdot \vec{v} - (\nabla_p f) \cdot \vec{F}$$

if \vec{p} is
or instead
of \vec{p} ; other
action etc k

Use the formalism to rederive $J = -D \nabla_c n$, $D = \frac{1}{3} \epsilon l$

No external field ($F=0$). As before, for simplicity take $\nabla_c = \partial/\partial z$.

In steady state $\frac{df}{dt} = 0$, so Boltzmann reads

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{t_0} (f_0 - f) - v_z \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}}$$

$$\text{so } f = f_0 - v_z t_0 \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right)_p$$

$$\approx f_0 - v_z t_0 \left(\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial z} \right)_p$$

If we need a better approximation, plug this in for f on the r.h.s. of the previous line:

$$f \approx f_0 - v_z t_0 \left[\left(\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial z} \right)_p - v_z t_0 \left(\frac{\partial^2 f_0}{\partial z^2} \right)_p \right] \text{ etc.}$$

Justification for using 1st order: small perturbation \rightarrow small $f - f_0$ (linear response). v_z already small

$$\text{flux } J = \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3} f(p(k)) v_z \quad \vec{p} = \hbar \vec{k} = m \vec{v}$$

\downarrow
spikes

$$\approx \int dk_x dk_y dk_z \cdot \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} f_0 v_z - \int \left(\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial z} \right)_p v_z^2 t_0 dk_x dk_y dk_z$$

0 since $f_0 = f_0(\epsilon) = e^{(\mu - \epsilon)\beta} = f_0\left(\frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}\right)$ is even in k_z , while

$v_z = \frac{\hbar k_z}{m}$ is odd. the odd part of the distribution

To evaluate second integral, note $\left(\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial z} \right)_p = \left(\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \mu} \right)_p \frac{d\mu}{dz} = \beta f_0 \frac{d\mu}{dz}$

Two choices: 1) assume t_0 ind. of k^2 (i.e., of v^2) so that it comes out. ~~THAT~~

2) Assume l ind. of k^2 , $l = \langle t_0(k) v \rangle$, or $t_0 = l/v$
extra average

These give answers that differ by $\sim 5\%$. Solid state convention #1,
 kinetics of gases #2.

which is right? Neither — collisions are more complicated than model.
 Both treat τ (or l) as a phenomenological parameter.

Pick #2a

Then

$$J = - \frac{dn}{dt} l \beta \int \frac{v_x^2}{v} f_0 \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3}$$

$$1. \frac{dn}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left[k_B T \ln \left(\frac{n}{n_0} \right) \right]. \quad \text{Only } n \text{ depends on } z, \text{ so}$$

$$= k_B T \frac{1}{n} \frac{dn}{dt}$$

Note n_0 is necessary, but Boltzmann
 didn't need to know what it was, since
 it dropped out.

$$2. \text{ write } v_x^2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{3} v^2 \rightarrow \text{integral} = \frac{1}{3} \int |v|^2 f_0 \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \equiv \frac{1}{3} n \langle |v|^2 \rangle \\ \equiv \frac{1}{3} n \bar{v}$$

$$\text{Then } J = - \frac{1}{3} k_B T \frac{1}{n} \frac{dn}{dt} l \beta \bar{v}$$

$$= - \frac{1}{3} l \bar{v} \nabla n = - D \nabla n \quad \text{with } D = \frac{1}{3} l \bar{v}$$

4/16/03

4/16/03 Mon: Boltzmann

today: critical exponents

Fri: renormalization group

(with pp. 149-150)

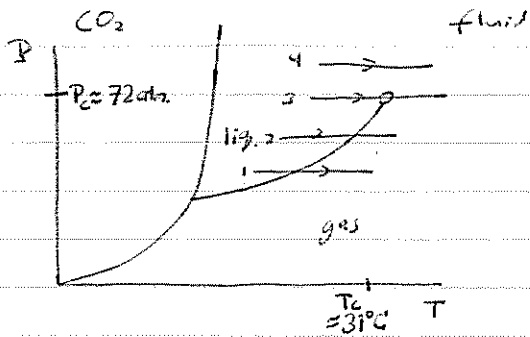
Critical Phenomena

References: • M.E. Fisher's lectures at Summer school, Univ. of Stellenbosch, Jan. 1982.

in F.J.W. Hahn, ed., *Critical Phenomena*, Springer, 1983.

• Nigel Goldenfeld, *Lectures on Phase Transitions & the Renormalization Group*

• Julia Yeomans, *Statistical Mechanics of Phase Transitions*



Observations on coexistence line:

- 1. boiling - two coexisting fluids, each transparent (diff. densities, refractive indices) - latent heat
- 2. same - difference in densities less, smaller latent heat
- 4. no discontinuous change in appearance, ^{or density} no coexistence, no latent heat

3. $T < T_c$ transparent

$T > T_c$ transparent

$T \approx T_c$ critical opalescence: forward scattered light brownish-orange

"Streaky" "like a sunset on a smoggy day"

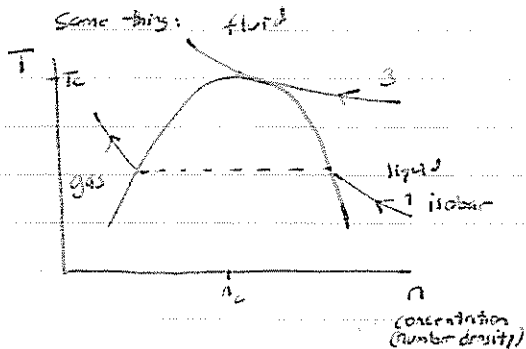
Side scattered: bluish

[like atmosphere but intensity stronger]

no latent heat

Photo

same thing



Universality: plot $\frac{T}{T_c}$ vs. $\frac{n}{n_c}$ for various systems - they all coincide near the critical point

Examples: $CO_2, Ar, Kr, Ne, O_2, H_2O, ^3He, ^4He$

Simple fluids for which vdW serves well (away from crit. pt.)

Chemically complex quantum fluids (Fermi/Bose)

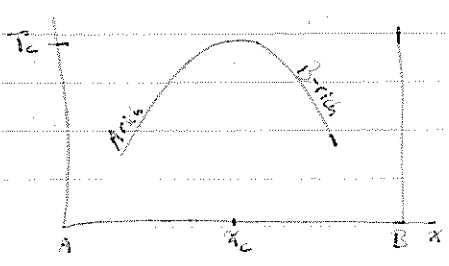
Inference: microscopic differences among fluids not in play - something is happening on a length scale large enough to scatter visible light ($\sim 0.5 \mu m$)

Quantitatively: define reduced temperature $t = \frac{T - T_c}{T_c}$. Then at crit. pt.

$n_{liq} - n_{gc} \sim |t|^\beta$ as $T \rightarrow T_c^-$ along coexistence line

β same for the examples, in range 0.32-0.34 (SE₆: $\beta = 0.327(6)$; $\beta_{H_2O} = \beta = 0.323(8)$).

Universality extends to a very different system, the binary mixture of Ch. 11:



$\chi_{B-crit} - \chi_{A-crit} \sim |x|^{\beta}$ as $x \rightarrow 0^-$ ($T \rightarrow T_c$)

same β as before for $CCl_4/C_2F_5I_4$

At first, Na/K/Cu dissolved in NH_3 look different, with β apparently $\neq \beta$. However, for $|x| < 0.003$, again $\beta \approx 0.33$

slope of "critical region" not universal; outside crit. region MFT holds

4/10

Definition of " λ ":

$f(x) \sim x^{\lambda}$ as $x \rightarrow 0^{\pm}$

means $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^{\pm}} \frac{\ln(f(x))}{\ln x} = \lambda$. Graphically: slope of log-log plot

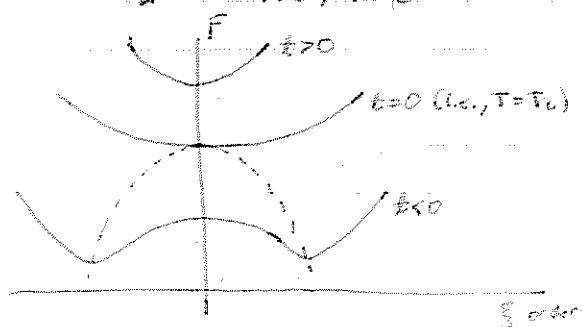
eg, $f(x) = Ax^{\lambda}$: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln(A) + \lambda \ln x}{\ln x} = \lambda$

This also works if there are log or other corrections, eg;

$f(x) = Ax^{\lambda} |\ln x|^{\mu}$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln A + \lambda \ln x + \mu \ln |\ln x|}{\ln x} = \lambda$

Landau theory for β :



ξ for fluid could be $\frac{n_{12} - n_{21}}{n_c}$

order parameter (order η)
negative just reverses roles

$F = F_0 + \frac{1}{2} g_2(t) S^2 + \frac{1}{4} g_4 S^4$

spontaneous order at minima

$\frac{\partial F}{\partial S} = g_2(t) S + g_4 S^3 = 0$

$S = 0$ or $S = \pm \sqrt{-g_2/g_4}$

Assume $g_2(t)$ can be Taylor expanded about $t=0$ where g_2 changes sign:

$g_2(t) = 0 + at + 0 + bt^3 + \dots$ only odd so it changes sign

$\propto at$ close enough to $t=0$
 $a > 0$

so $\xi^2 = -\frac{at}{g_4}$



$+ \xi - (-\xi) = 2\xi = 2\sqrt{\frac{a}{g_4}} |t|^{1/2} = \text{const. } |t|^{1/2}$

so $\beta = 1/2$ in disagreement with experiment

Landau theory equiv. to MFT: both ignore spatial fluctuations away from equilibrium

Examples of critical exponents:

single-component order param, $d=3$

MFT RG

$C_{12}(t) \sim |t|^{-\alpha}$

0 0.11

isothermal susceptibility $\chi = \lim_{H \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial H} \right)_T = t^{-\gamma}$

1 1.23

~~correlation length~~ $\xi \sim t^{-\nu}$

1/2 0.63

$n_{H_1} - n_{H_2} \sim |t|^\beta$

1/2 0.32

call ν + ν and ν of order param

Relations (examples)

α, γ same above and below critical point

$\alpha + 2\beta + \gamma = 2$

Eggen-Fisher

$\nu d = 2 - \alpha$

"hyperscaling" (d = dimensionality)

4/8/03 Wed: Boltzmann \rightarrow Fick

Critical phenomena

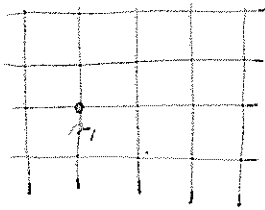
today: Critical phenomena

RG?

next weeks: review

Model system: Ising

e.g., 2dim



Spin $m_i = \pm 1$

$$\mathcal{H} = -J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} m_i m_j - H \sum_i m_i - N\epsilon$$

H external field - will be interested in $H=0$
constant $-N\epsilon$ changes nothing but might be handy later

1D fairly easy

2D solved exactly by Onsager 1944-1949 (chemist)

3D proven (?) NP-complete ^{this was just an extension to other 3D lattices} (Sokal & Montenegro)
F. Barahona J Phys A 15 3241 (1982) showed NP-complete

"solved exactly" means expressions for free energy per spin $f(T)$, energy $u(T)$, specific heat etc. - closed form except for some simple integrals.

All the critical exponents can be calculated from the exact solution

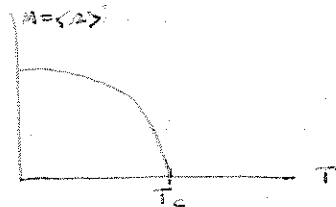
2D

(1 dim = 4 sites, 2D)

Phase transition at temp. $T_c = 2.269 J$ ^{$= \frac{2}{\ln(1+\sqrt{2})}$ exact} where 2.269 calculated to arb-precision

$T < T_c$: spontaneous magnetization

$T > T_c$: no net magnetization



$$M \sim |t|^\beta$$

For 2D Ising, $\beta = 1/8$ (exact)

3D: $\beta \approx 0.32$

Recall MFT in ch. 10 of KBK:

$$m = \tanh(m/t'), \quad m = \frac{M}{N\mu_B}, \quad t' = \frac{J}{T_c} = t + 1$$



$m = \tanh\left(\frac{m}{t}\right)$, $\frac{m}{t}$ is small near crit. pt. so long as $T_c > 0$

$\approx \frac{m}{t} - \frac{2}{3!} \left(\frac{m}{t}\right)^3 + \dots$

$t' = 1 - \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{m}{t}\right)^2$

~~$m = [3 \frac{t'-1}{t}]^{1/2} = \sqrt{\frac{3t}{t-1}} \approx \sqrt{3t} \sim t^{1/2}$~~ not at all like $1/8$, nor 0.32
 $m = [3(1-t')t^{1/2}]^{1/2} = [3t(1-t')]^{1/2} \sim t^{1/2}$ (note: MFT ind. of dimension - becomes exact for high enough dim, often 4) always so

Why are Landau theory & MFT equivalent, and why both wrong?
 They ignore spatial fluctuations.

General approach to problems, not all of which can be solved exactly (like 1D Ising):

The Renormalization group

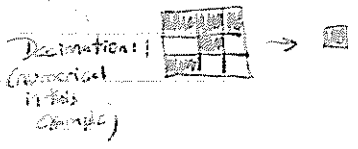
not unique (e.g., real space vs. momentum)

not same as mass/charge renormalization in QED, although inspired by it

not group (no inverse)

ASK about configurations at $T=0, T=\infty$

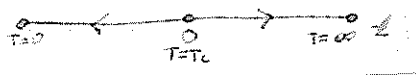
Show copies from Yeomans



$T < T_c$: before decimation, infinitely phase stretched almost across view - discuss correlation length, difference from random configuration

$T > T_c$: under RG, flows to $T=0$ fixed point flows to $T=\infty$

$T = T_c$: invariant (statistically)



outline of an RG etc. in 1d (ref. Yeomans)

Simplify: leave off bracketed terms ($\neq 0$) } NO

Original Hamiltonian $\mathcal{H} = -J \sum_i s_i s_{i+1} - H \sum_i s_i - N G$

in 1d. Ah-but then we lose FM fixed point.

$= \sum_i (-J s_i s_{i+1} - H s_i - G)$

Partition func. $Z = \sum_{\{s\}} e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}} = \sum_{\{s\}} \prod_i \exp[\beta (J s_i s_{i+1} + H s_i + G)]$

$$= \sum_{\{S_i\}} \prod_{\text{corn}} \exp \left[\beta (J \cdot \{A_{i,i+1} + P_{i,i+1}\} + H \{A_i + \frac{1}{2}A_{i-1} + \frac{1}{2}A_{i+1}\} + 2G_i] \right]$$

Now for the crucial step. Perform the sum for all even-numbered spins, i.e., circled spins $\rightarrow 1$ and $\rightarrow -1$. Remember all the odd spins $2i+1 \rightarrow i$, so that (after some algebra)

$$Z = \sum_{\{S_i\}} \prod_i e^{-\beta' S_i^2}$$

$$S_i^2 = -J' \sum_i A_i A_{i+1} - H' \sum_i A_i - N' G'$$

$$N' = \frac{N}{2} = \frac{N}{b} \quad \text{"decimation" } b=2$$

where $\beta' J', H', G'$ are funcs. of J, H, G, \dots
(3 simult. eqns.)

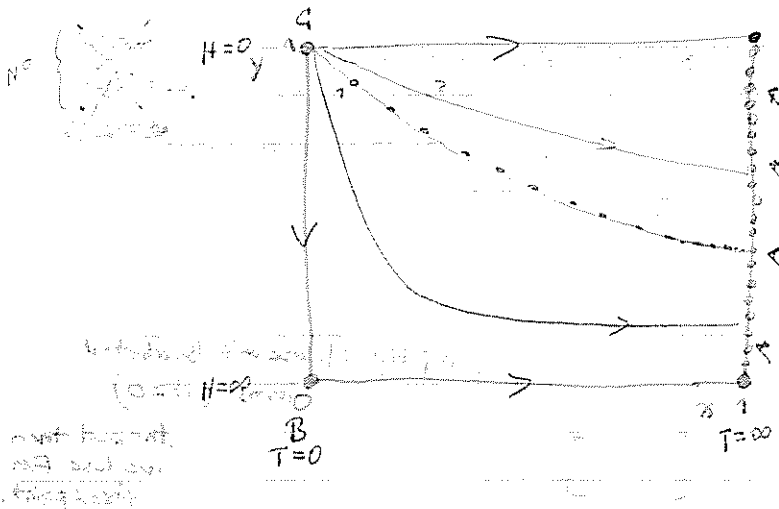
G' eqn. doesn't affect spins, so simply absorb β into J (only βJ products come in)

convenient variables

$$x = e^{-4\beta J}$$

$$y = e^{-2\beta H}$$

x takes place of t for this 1-dim problem -
crit temp $T_c = 0$, so t not defined



Fixed points $(x', y') = (x, y)$

A) whole line $x=y$ ($\beta=0$ or $T=\infty$) completely disordered ($M=0$) (or $J=0$)

B) $(0,0)$: $x=0, y=0$
 \downarrow \downarrow
 $\beta=\infty$ $H=\infty$
 $T=0$
 ferromagnet

C) $(0,1)$: $T=0, H=0$. This is the critical point in 1D.

If we start anywhere else, \rightarrow flow under decimation [show it].
 If we let b be arbitrarily close to 1 (instead of 2), get continuous curve [show].
 Least stable fixed point most interesting.

Since we know Z , we can get free energy per spin. (recall $F = -k_B T \ln Z$).

Near $(0,1)$ fixed point, let $\epsilon = y-1$ so $(x, \epsilon)_{\text{fixed}} = (0,0)$.

$$\text{Find } x' \sim 4x = b^2 x$$

$$\epsilon' \sim 2\epsilon = b \epsilon$$

free energy = $f_0 + f_1$, f_0 smooth through transition
 f_1 singular

$$f_2(x, \epsilon) = \frac{1}{b} f_2(x', \epsilon') = \frac{1}{b} f_2(b^2 x, b \epsilon)$$

Since unprimed has spins
 b times as many spins

Specific heat at T_c near T_c $C_v = -T_c \left(\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial T^2} \right) \sim \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} \right)$ for a system with $T_c > 0$

Since we don't have t , use x as substitute.

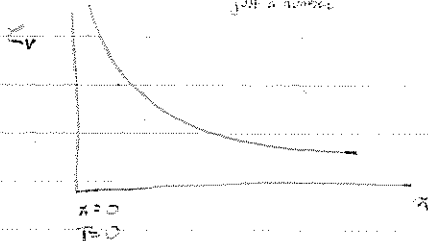
$$\frac{\partial^2 f(x, 0)}{\partial x^2} \sim \frac{1}{b} b^2 b^2 f''(b^2 x, 0) \quad \times \text{ derivative } \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \text{ non-singular}$$

$$f''_{xx}(x, 0) = b^2 f''_{xx}(b^2 x, 0)$$

Forget that $b=2$, and choose it to be $x^{-1/2}$. Then

$$C_v \sim \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right) \Rightarrow x^{-3/2} f(x, 0) \Rightarrow \boxed{\alpha = 3/2}$$

$\infty - T_c$:
 just a number



4/21/03 Fri: Critical phenomena

today: RG
review

Review problems

Man 3.1 spin-1 paramagnet ($m = +1, 0, -1$) N spins

Max entropy
to an ensemble

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{H} &= - \sum_i \mu B \sigma_i \\
 Z &= \sum_{\{\sigma\}} \prod_i e^{\beta \mu B \sigma_i} = [1 + 2 \cosh(\beta \mu B)]^N
 \end{aligned}$$

\leftarrow which configuration of N spins (3^N of them)
 $= \prod_i e^{\beta \mu B \sigma_i^{(1)}} + \prod_i e^{\beta \mu B \sigma_i^{(2)}} + \dots = [e^{\beta \mu B (-1)} + e^{\beta \mu B (0)} + e^{\beta \mu B (1)}]^N$

magnetism $M = N \mu \langle \sigma \rangle$; the average spin is the average of any particular spin, so

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle \sigma \rangle &= \frac{1}{Z} (0 - 1 e^{-\beta \mu B} + 1 e^{+\beta \mu B}) [1 + 2 \cosh(\beta \mu B)]^{N-1} \\
 &= \frac{2 \sinh(\beta \mu B)}{1 + 2 \cosh(\beta \mu B)}
 \end{aligned}$$

small field or high temp: $\beta \mu B \ll 1$

$$\langle \sigma \rangle \approx \frac{2 \beta \mu B}{3}, \text{ so } M = \frac{2}{3} N \mu^2 \beta B$$

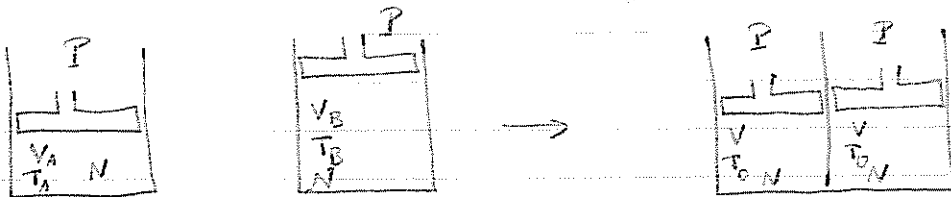
high field or low temp: $\beta \mu B \gg 1$

$$\langle \sigma \rangle = \frac{e^{\beta \mu B} (1 - e^{-2\beta \mu B})}{e^{\beta \mu B} (1 + e^{-\beta \mu B} + e^{-2\beta \mu B})} \approx 1 - \underbrace{e^{-\beta \mu B}}_{\text{small}}$$

4/21/03

4/21/03

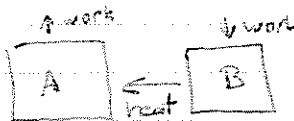
Man 4.2



Volumes same since P, T, N same

First, what is equilibrium temperature, T_0 ?

energy budget:



Energy changes (after minus before) from equipartition:

$$\text{in A} \quad \Delta U_A = \frac{3}{2} N k_B (T_0 - T_A)$$

$$\text{in B} \quad \Delta U_B = \frac{3}{2} N k_B (T_0 - T_B)$$

these parts of energy changes due to work done on each gas:

$$\text{to A} \quad W_A = P(V_A - V) = N k_B (T_A - T_0)$$

$$\text{to B} \quad W_B = N k_B (T_B - T_0)$$

The difference is heat transferred in to each gas:

$$Q_A = \frac{5}{2} N k_B (T_0 - T_A)$$

$$Q_B = \frac{5}{2} N k_B (T_0 - T_B)$$

$$\text{Require } Q_A = Q_B : \quad T_0 - T_A = T_B - T_0$$

$$T_0 = \frac{T_A + T_B}{2} \quad \text{just average}$$

In retrospect obvious

$$\text{Heat capacity of ideal gas } C_P = \frac{5}{2} N k_B \quad (\text{ind. of temp.})$$

$$= T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T} \right)_P, \quad \text{so}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T} \right)_P = \frac{\frac{5}{2} N k_B}{T}$$

$$\Delta S = \frac{5}{2} N k_B \left[\int_{T_A}^{T_0} + \int_{T_B}^{T_0} \right] \left(\frac{1}{T} dT \right) = \frac{5}{2} N k_B (2 \ln T_0 - \ln T_A - \ln T_B)$$

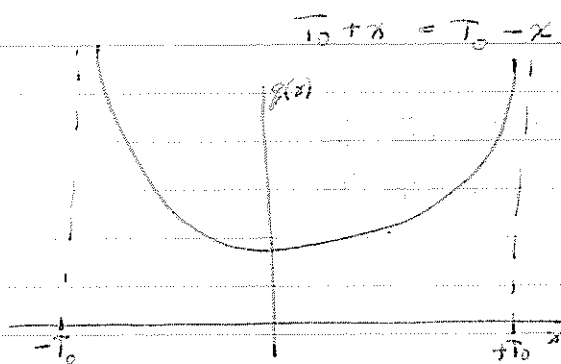
$$\text{Use } T_0 = \text{ave. temp.} : \quad \Delta S = \frac{5}{2} N k_B \ln \left[\frac{\frac{1}{4} (T_A + T_B)^2}{T_A T_B} \right]$$

Assertion: the argument of the log is ≥ 1 .

$$\text{Write } T_B = T_0 + \pi, \quad T_A = T_0 - \pi.$$

$$\text{argument } q \equiv \frac{\frac{1}{4}(T_0 + T_0)^2}{T_1 T_2} = \frac{(2T_0)^2}{4(T_0 - x)(T_0 + x)} = \frac{T_0^2}{(T_0 - x)(T_0 + x)}$$

$$\text{Find extrema: } \frac{dq}{dx} = \frac{T_0^2}{(T_0 - x)^2 (T_0 + x)} - \frac{T_0^2}{(T_0 - x)(T_0 + x)^2} = 0$$



$q(x) \rightarrow +\infty$ at $x = \pm T_0$
 so $x=0$ is a minimum.

$$\text{Minimum value is } \frac{T_0^2}{T_0^2} = 1$$

so $\Delta S \geq 0$ with equality when $x=0$,
 i.e., $T_1 = T_2$.

Alternatively, we could have used Sachar-Tetrode.

Problem: Find the functional form of $P(V)$ for an adiabat of an ideal monatomic gas.

1. Sachar-Tetrode $S = Nk_B \left[\ln\left(\frac{n^3}{n}\right) + \frac{5}{2} \right]$, $n_Q \sim T^{3/2}$, $n = N/V$

$$\Rightarrow T^{3/2} V = \text{constant}$$

i.e., for (P_1, T_1, V_1) and (P_2, T_2, V_2) two points on the adiabat,

$$\left(\frac{T_1}{T_2}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2}\right) = 1$$

$$\text{Replace } T \rightarrow \frac{VP}{Nk_B}$$

$$\left(\frac{P_1}{P_2}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2}\right)^{5/2} = 1 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{P_1}{P_2}\right) \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2}\right)^{5/3} = 1$$

$$\text{or } P \sim V^{-5/3}$$

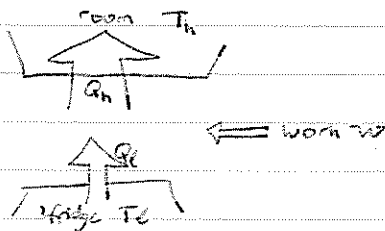
Alternative: $dU = TdS - PdV = -PdV$ for an adiabat; $dU = \frac{3}{2} Nk_B dT$ for

$$\frac{3}{2} Nk_B dT = -PdV = -\frac{Nk_B T}{V} dV$$

$$\frac{3}{2} \frac{dT}{T} = -\frac{dV}{V}$$

$$\frac{3}{2} \ln(T_1/T_2) = -\ln(V_1/V_2) \Rightarrow \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2}\right) = 1 \text{ etc.}$$

Kittel 8.7: "to draw" refers to the motor; the heat Q_c removed from the refrigerator and the heat Q_h dumped at room temp. may each be larger than the work W supplied by the motor. (All energies understood to be per unit time, so powers.)



$$\begin{cases} \frac{Q_c}{T_c} = \frac{Q_h}{T_h} \\ Q_h = Q_c + W \end{cases}$$

$$W = Q_h - Q_c = \frac{Q_c (T_h - T_c)}{T_c} \quad \text{FF } T_c > T_h/2, \text{ as it would typically}$$

be for a household refrigerator, $W < Q_c$. We can cool from T_h to $\frac{1}{2}T_h$.

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4/26/04

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7.14 N Bosons, spin 0

(Good problem to distinguish single-particle from many-body energies.)

Single-particle levels $\begin{array}{c} \text{---} \epsilon \\ \text{---} 0 \end{array}$ Each can be occupied by

any number of particles, so any many-body energy integer $\times \epsilon$ is possible.

We also see that chem. pot ϕ is important to control N .

$$f_{BE}(0) = \frac{1}{\lambda^{-1} - 1}, \quad \lambda = e^{\mu/\beta} \text{ fugacity}$$

$$f_{BE}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta\epsilon} \lambda^{-1} - 1}$$

We want $\frac{f_{BE}(0)}{f_{BE}(\epsilon)} = 2 = \frac{e^{\beta\epsilon} \lambda^{-1} - 1}{\lambda^{-1} - 1}$

At the same time, μ is fixed by $f_{BE}(0) + f_{BE}(\epsilon) = N$

two eqns. in 2 unks. (λ and β):

$$\begin{cases} f_{BE}(0) - 2f_{BE}(\epsilon) = 0 \\ f_{BE}(0) + f_{BE}(\epsilon) = N \end{cases}$$

Eliminate $f_{DE}(\epsilon)$:

$$3 f_{DE}(0) = 2N$$

||

$$\frac{3}{\lambda^{-1} - 1}$$

$$\lambda^{-1} = 1 + \frac{3}{2N} \quad \text{Plug in to ratio,}$$

$$\text{so } 2 = \frac{e^{\epsilon\beta} \left(1 + \frac{3}{2N}\right) - 1}{1 + \frac{3}{2N} - 1} = \frac{2}{3} N [e^{\epsilon\beta} - 1] + e^{\epsilon\beta}$$

$$e^{\epsilon\beta} \left(\frac{2}{3}N + 1\right) - \frac{2}{3}N = 2$$

$$\downarrow \quad \leftarrow \text{small}$$

$$\left(\frac{2}{3}N + 1\right) = \frac{2}{3}N \left(1 + \frac{3}{2N}\right), \text{ so}$$

$$e^{\epsilon\beta} \approx 2 \left(1 + \frac{3}{2N}\right) \frac{3}{2N} \left(1 - \frac{3}{2N}\right)$$

$$= \frac{3}{N} \left(\frac{1}{3}N + 1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{N^2}\right)$$

$$= 3 \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2N}\right)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{3}{2N}$$

$$\epsilon\beta = \ln\left(1 + \frac{3}{2N}\right) \approx \frac{3}{2N} \quad (\text{Taylor})$$

$$\boxed{\gamma = \frac{2}{3} N \epsilon} + \mathcal{O}(1)\epsilon$$

————— ϵ

————— 0

temp much larger than expected classically

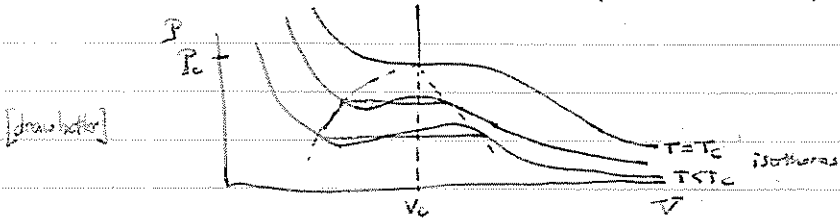
Explain briefly how one might measure the temperature of an experiment near

- 3K
- 300K
- 3000K.

How might such temperatures be produced and maintained?

- measuring: 3K melting-curve thermody of ^4He (coex. of solid & liq) (need pressure cell in thermal but not diffusive contact with sample)
 vapor pressure (coex. of liq. & gas)
 magnetization of electronic spin in $\text{Ce}_2\text{Mg}_3(\text{NO}_3)_{12} \cdot 24\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (see K&K App. B)
 speed of sound in ^3He gas (App. B)
- 300K Hg thermometer
 ideal gas ($PV = Nk_B T$)
- 3000K black-body radiation
 (too hot for doped sapphire fibers - melt @ 2175K)
- producing: 3K pump on ^4He
 300K resistive heater, cooling, etc.
 3000K resistive heater (less than temp. of common tungsten incandescent bulb) in furnace

Fairly involved problem out of Thompson (4.2): G_V discontinuity in van der Waals fluid (just start)



$$G_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_V ; U_{\text{vdw}} = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T - \frac{N^2 a}{V} \quad \text{prob. 10.1}$$

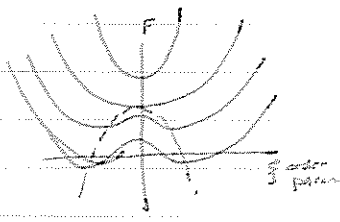
$$C_V = \frac{3}{2} N k_B \quad \text{just as for ideal gas}$$

This is correct for $T > T_c$ but not for $T < T_c$, where we have to follow liquid and gas branches separately - neither at constant volume, even though overall volume is constant.

Ans: $C_V(T \rightarrow T_c^-) - C_V(T \rightarrow T_c^+) = \frac{3}{2} k_B$

Esser problem but similar: discontinuity in Landau theory, [Eshel map on to previous]

$$F(\xi, \lambda) = g_0(\xi) + \frac{1}{2} a \xi^2 + \frac{1}{4} g_4 \xi^4 \quad \lambda = \frac{T - T_c}{T_c}$$



get C_V from F :

$$C_V = T \left(\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial T^2} \right)_V \quad \text{no } \lambda \text{ to hold constant, proximity}$$

$$\xi = - \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial \xi} \right)_T, \text{ so } C_V = -T \left(\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial \xi^2} \right)_T = - \frac{T}{T_c^2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial \lambda^2} \right)_T$$

$$T > T_c: \xi = 0, \text{ so } F = g_0(t), \quad C_V(T_c^+) = -\frac{1}{T_c} g_0''(0)$$

$$T < T_c: \text{Feyn notes pp 152-53, } \xi^2 = -\frac{at}{g_4} \text{ gives minima } \pm \xi \text{ for } t < 0$$

$$F = g_0(t) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(at)^2}{g_4} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{(at)^4}{g_4} = g_0(t) - \frac{1}{4} \frac{(at)^2}{g_4}$$

$$C_V = -\frac{1}{T_c} \left[g_0'' - \frac{a^2}{2g_4} \right]$$

$$\text{discontinuity } \Delta C_V = \frac{1}{T_c} \frac{a^2}{2g_4}$$

Some themes

Statistical Mechanics

ensembles

$$\text{entropy} = k_B \ln (\# \text{ confys.})$$

$$\text{temp} = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S} \right)_{V, N}$$

partition function, Boltzmann factor

quantiz'n of phase space

Sackur-Tetrode

kinetic theory

flucts. small except near 2nd-order crit. pt.

Thermodynamics

$$1. dU = \delta Q + \delta W$$

$$2. dS \geq 0$$

$$3. \frac{S}{N} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } T \rightarrow 0, N \rightarrow \infty \text{ (Gibbs)}$$

engines

thermodynamic def'n of temp.

potentials (F, G, H, etc.)

partial derivs.

Quantum mechanics

degen. Fermi gas: e.g. metal $T_F \sim 10^4 - 10^5 \text{ K}$

(few states participate in G_V at room temp)

degen. Bose gas: macroscopic ground state occupied even if $T \gg \text{gap}$

superfluidity